The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

TODAY'S EDUCATION

November-December 1975

- Kenneth Keniston on Do Americans Really Like Children?
- Federal Reserve Bank Study Indicates Schools Do Make a Difference with comments by James Coleman et al
- David Elkind on We Can Teach Reading Better
- Arnold Zukow on Helping the Hyperkinetic Child
- Fred Wilhelms and Steven Muller on Are Education Standards Slipping?
- Home-School Relationships Feature with articles by Nancy Larrick et al

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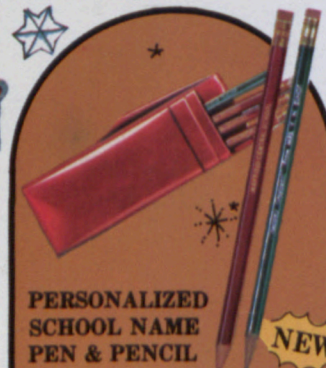

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IN THIS ISSUE

How do you like this month's rainbow cover?

Whether you like it or not, we hope you'll be intrigued by the colorful lineup of big-name authors and pertinent topics listed there and on page three. Over the years, your journal has proudly carried educationally significant articles by outstanding leaders, and this issue follows that tradition:

Kenneth Keniston, chairman and executive director of the Carnegie Council on Children, says it's time for Americans to behave like a family of related people rather than like a collection of competing individuals. It's time for old-style individualism to give way to some old-style sense of community.

James Coleman, author of the well-known Coleman report, comments on an important research study conducted by the Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia and summarized in this issue. He says the study is an important step forward in the strategy for learning how schools affect achievement. He agrees that this study does clearly indicate that schools can indeed make a difference. The study also reveals that proper allocating and budgeting of school resources can not only promote student achievement but can help compensate for the disadvantages associated with poverty, race, and low ability.

David Elkind, a professor of psychology, psychiatry, and education, says we can do a better job of teaching children to read if we keep in mind how their minds develop. In his article, he first discusses beginning reading and the child's concept of letters and then moves on to how children who are more advanced readers use their knowledge to give meaning to the printed word.

Arnold Zukow, a West Coast pediatrician, discusses how the classroom teacher can help the hyperkinetic child. He points out that there are several well-documented studies indicating that the symptoms of hyperkinesis can be markedly improved by the judicious use of medications properly prescribed and administered. He adds that the primary object of medication is to improve the functioning of the hyperkinetic child's brain.

Fred Wilhelms, former executive secretary of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, and **Steven Muller,** president of Johns Hopkins University, discuss in separate articles whether American educational standards are slipping. Wilhelms says he sees no evidence of massive erosion; Miller says he is convinced that standards *are* declining, and he cites five reasons for the decline.

Nancy Larrick, famous author of books on children's reading, is the contributor of one of eight articles in the 19-page special feature on home-school relationships. She discusses how teachers can make an impact on children's growth in reading from infancy through the preteen years by enlisting the help of parents and then guiding them in their daily approach to children.

Have you ever wondered how many of the articles in *Today's Education* have *not* been solicited by the editors? Unsoliciteds do, in fact, make up a sizable proportion of every issue. They come by the hundreds from all parts of the country—many of them from elementary and secondary classroom teachers.

For example, in this issue we are publishing unsolicited articles from Richard Shepardson of Iowa, Edwin Travers of Maryland, Nancy Mullins of Florida, Gloria Smith of Michigan, Alice Scales of Pennsylvania, Helen Holmes of Nebraska, Walter D. St. John of New Hampshire, and Elam Hill of California.

Perhaps these authors were lured to *Today's Education* by the fact that it has by far the largest circulation of any professional journal in the world —almost 2 million. Or that it has won more than 20 national awards in the past 10 years. Or that it has earned excellent readership reports over the years from Daniel Starch and Staff, Inc., W.R. Simmons and Associates Research, Inc., and NEA Research. (The latest 1975 readership study by NEA Research indicates that 97 percent of our members read the magazine at least occasionally and 88 percent of our members find it helpful.)

You, too, should consider submitting a manuscript for possible use in *Today's Education.* It's your journal and one you can be proud of. Your article might tell of your favorite teaching experience (in about 800 to 2,500 words) that has carry-over value for other teachers. We can't pay you for your contribution, but if it is accepted by the editors, you will have the satisfaction of reaching most of the teachers in this country with ideas that may interest and help them.

Don't be deterred from writing by fear of committing a boner in your manuscript. Just about everyone will occasionally garble sentences, mix metaphors, or fall into pedaguese. Our skilled copy editors will straighten up any weak sentences, and we'll let you review our editing before we go to press.

Here are some literary blunders that have been caught over the years by our alert copy editors. These defective sentences may make you feel less apprehensive about your own writing.

"Boys die more often than girls."

"By the end of the school year, my love for teaching has all but diminished."

"The class stomped quietly out of the room."

"I waited patiently, dissecting each student in class."

"How to challenge those bright youngsters in our classrooms has always been a thorn in the flesh of the ebb and flow of educators' expectations."

If you're still not ready to send us an article, you may wish to share with us your reaction to articles carried in recent issues. Your statement may be carried in our "Letters" column. At the very least, your reactions—and suggestions—will be duly noted and could influence future plans for your magazine.

Who knows? Someday your name or the title of an article suggested by you may appear on the cover of your professional journal.

—WAG.

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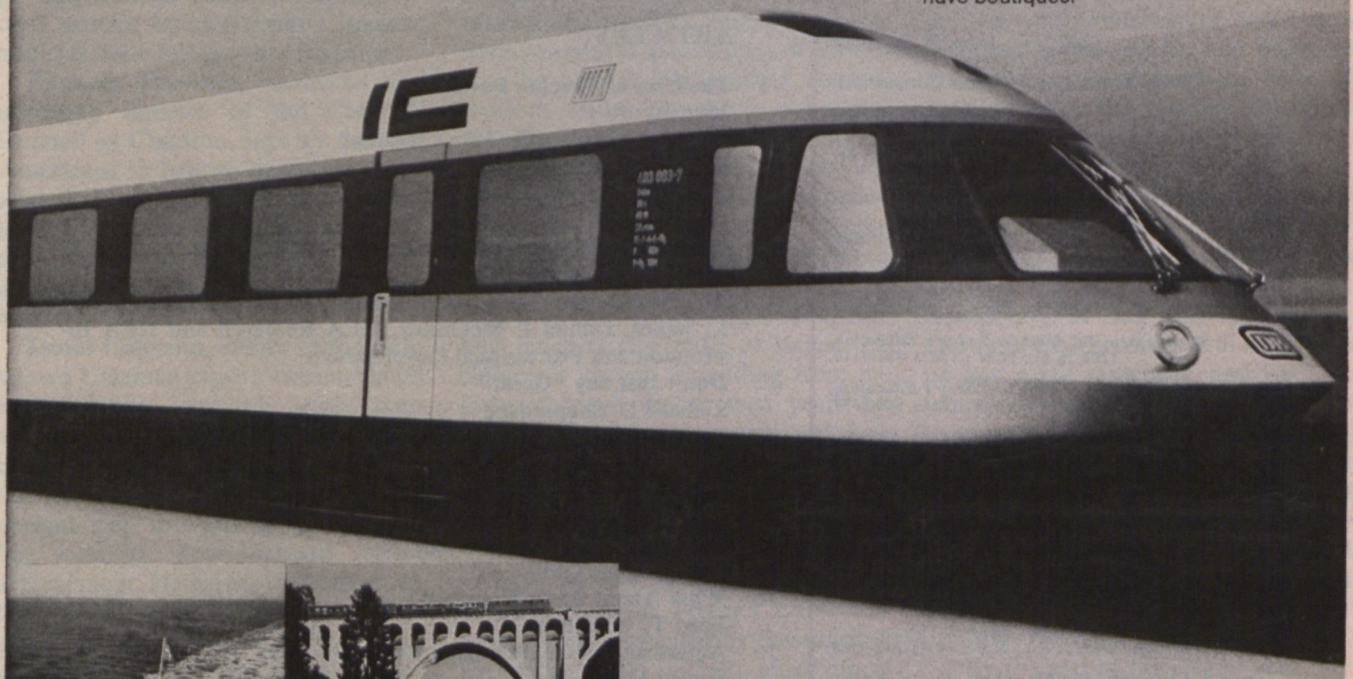

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EDITORIAL

The Uses of Teacher Power

By JOHN RYOR
President, NEA.

The question of NEA's ability to achieve "teacher power" has been answered definitively in the past several years. In that time, the term has grown from a wistful cliché to an unchallengeable reality. We've learned the components of power—organization, unity, and commitment—and we've tested ourselves in every important battlefield: the halls of Congress, state legislatures, the courts of the nation, and, when necessary, on the pavements in front of school buildings. NEA *is* teacher power in 1975.

However, as we enter the nation's bicentennial year, it is time to evaluate two elements critical to our future as a profession and as an organization. The first of these is the present state of public education. The second is the uses of teacher power.

Democracy is a fragile institution, dependent for its survival on the wisdom of those who participate in its processes. American democracy is dependent on a steady supply of educated, thoughtful citizens, and American democracy relies on the nation's educators to help provide that supply.

As we acknowledge the importance of educators and education to the American democratic process, it is important to realize that many of the forces affecting public education today are not friendly:

Politicians give lip-service commitments to public education and speak brave words about reordering national priorities in favor of adequate financing of schools, but in 1975 we are a long way from those green pastures. The burden of school finance remains squarely on the shoulders of local taxpayers.

Restless legislatures in some states, under attack by irate citizens who demand answers to questions about allegedly inferior student performance, set off shock waves through entire school systems. Legislators blame the state department of education, which blames superintendents, who blame principals, who, in turn, blame teachers. And the end result of this shell game? Cheap accountability schemes and tests that do not begin to test students' ability to function in contemporary society.

Teachers—the skilled professionals who are knowledgeable about why some students cannot function well in today's schools—have little or nothing to say in far too many districts about the curriculum they must teach, class size, textbooks, and so on.

Community apathy toward public schools is turning to hostility in many parts of the country. A new and negative phenomenon is threatening to erode both the quality of schools and public confidence in them. In most school districts, local property taxes form the financial underpinnings of the public education system. In recent years of spiraling inflation, taxpayers have said "no" to spending more for schools, thereby weakening their financial structure.

American taxpayers, who have relatively little control over federal and state taxes, who have steadily lost financial ground to inflation and recession, and whose own jobs may be in jeopardy, have had enough. Ironically, the schools—the one public institution clearly dedicated to helping citizens with these problems—have become targets for anger and alienation.

Teachers do not come unarmed to combat the negative forces cited above. The power we have marshaled in recent years can be the deciding factor in the war for the survival of public education. Of course we are interested in preserving and improving our own lot; I don't believe we need to apologize for that. But as a collective force—organized, unified, committed to mutual goals—we are uniquely equipped to improve the quality of public education.

I see these tasks as the most critical ones for teacher advancement *and* the advancement of public education as a whole:

1. We must become the foremost political power in the nation. Anything less will be insufficient to place education at the top of the nation's priorities.

2. We must see to it, through the collective-bargaining and legislative processes, that teachers everywhere are treated fairly and that they are no longer blocked out of educational decision making.

3. We must reach out to the citizens of our communities and bring them back into the public schools. The ultimate success or failure of our aspirations depends on winning and maintaining public trust.

4. We must see to it that racism and sexism are banished from every classroom in the nation.

5. We must acknowledge our common destiny with other public employees and work cooperatively to ensure that we are no longer treated as second-class citizens.

The tasks I've listed are formidable, but I am confident in our ability to accomplish them. Organized American teachers are uniquely equipped to accomplish these goals, because never before in our society have such highly skilled, purposeful people come together, prepared to find solutions. In recent years, we have made a beginning. I believe the years ahead will bring fulfillment of what we have begun. □

LETTERS

Ideas and opinions in this feature are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. "Letters" is primarily a forum for NEA members. If you are currently a member, please paste the mailing label from a recent copy of Today's Education *at the top of your letter. Also indicate your school, position, and home address.*

Commenting on Gallup

George Gallup's comments in "The Public Looks at the Public Schools" (September-October) were informative and encouraging. In an era of cynicism and disillusionment, it is refreshing to see how much confidence the people still have in their educational institutions. Despite the rumblings of a chic minority who dismiss the schools as hopelessly "irrelevant" and "unresponsive" to public concerns, we see that the majority still seem pretty satisfied with schools.

The report that a "lack of discipline" heads the list of public criticisms of the schools—for the fifth time in six years—is interesting though predictable. Recent years have seen rising rates of street crime paralleled by a growing disregard for law and professional ethics in both politics and business. In such times, it is only natural that the public would grow in its conviction that the schools must reassert their authority and reaffirm their commitment to producing a more disciplined and conscientious citizenry.

While Gallup's diagnosis of our social ills seems pretty much to the point, some of his proposed remedies are way off the mark. His "scare tactic" approach to moral education—involving classroom examination of case studies of real children who ended up "in deep trouble"—would be of very limited usefulness. Values-clarification techniques like those of Sid Simon and conceptual approaches like those based on Lawrence Kohlberg's theories would seem more promising in terms of long-range character development.

Gallup's proposal that inner-city people be relocated to more favored communities, likewise, seems naive and unrealistic in light of the public response to recent attempts at "scatter site" public housing and court-ordered busing for racial balance.

Most of Gallup's proposals, though, are well thought out and worthy of consideration. His calls for a new Civilian Conservation Corps, for heavier stress on "fundamentals" and traditional academic standards, for greater efforts to show young people the relevance of the curriculum, and for making the school a more vital element in community life all make good sense.

—William E. Sheerin, *social studies teacher, Yorktown High School, Yorktown Heights, New York.*

I enjoyed reading George Gallup's article. I agreed with almost every one of his suggestions. I suspect that if each of his proposals became a reality, many of the problems in our schools would be solved.

—Jane A. Haines, *East Bridgewater, Massachusetts.*

Absurd! That's this reader's response to almost all of Dr. Gallup's "provocative" ideas.

Gallup recommends that teachers spend the first few periods of each school year telling students why they should be studying a particular subject. Doesn't Dr. Gallup realize that this is the perfect way to immediately turn the students off? Motivation for a subject is not the direct result of four 45-minute lectures. (How ironic that the feature immediately following Dr. Gallup's is titled, "Motivating Students." I recommend it for Dr. Gallup's nightly reading during his TV "hour for hour" trade-off.)

Dr. Gallup recommends establishing "a new kind of Teacher Corps." How are we to fund this Corps when classroom teaching jobs in my area and across the country are being eliminated?

Include courses in moral education, urges Dr. Gallup. And whose moral standards shall we use? And how could we possibly finance the law suits that would be sure to follow when such courses get down to the nitty-gritty and begin to offend the parents of the children we teach?

Not all Dr. Gallup's proposals are unreasonable. Even though it's impractical in these money-tight times, a Civilian Conservation Corps sounds great, and no teacher would quarrel with the Doctor over the continual need for emphasis on teaching reading skills. It's when the Doctor leaves general ideas like these and gets down into basic teaching procedures that he begins to flounder.

—Mary Medicus, *teacher of English, drama, and Latin, Cockeysville (Maryland) High School.*

A Disturbing Special Feature

Reading the "Special Feature on Motivating Students" (September-October) was both reassuring and alarming.

- *Reassuring* because the writers confirmed those convictions I held as I faced my first class 33 Septembers ago: that teaching is a person-to-person sharing and that each student can teach the teacher some new skill and value.
- *Alarming* because too often I've succumbed to convenient routine assignments, uniform tests, and content quotas. Even my presentation of "alternate assignments" is translated by the slow student as "I'm not smart enough to do the regular work." (But, Dr. Hayakawa, I thought I was listening to your lectures in Denver!)
- *Alarming* because I'm secure with structure but afraid to risk using student interests. (Where do I go after Dave has diagrammed a zone defense or Marge has demonstrated pizza making?)
- *Alarming* because I'm not creating

(*Continued on Page 8*)

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the environment for small-group learning. (How can I get students to share their revealing themes without breaking confidentiality?)

By sharing their experiences, these teachers have confronted all of us with the question: How much concern and creative planning are we willing to invest in each of our students?

Let's have more disturbing features like this one.

—Martha Williams, *English and social studies teacher, Terril (Iowa) High School.*

The special feature reaffirmed my faith that there are colleagues out there who care for kids and create innovative ways in which to get them to want to learn. I plan to use some of the fine ideas presented in the feature during this school term.

—Raymond F. Ensher, *teacher of grades four through eight, North Fork Union School, North Fork, California.*

"Physical Education for Life"

Many educators who not only know children but are aware of their needs in the area of physical education surely welcome George Leonard's remarks in the September-October issue.

Dr. Leonard certainly demonstrates an excellent understanding of children and young people. He has an acute awareness of what most "old traditional physical education programs" and high-powered athletics are like, as well as a real understanding of the physical and emotional damage these programs often inflict on our children.

It is my hope that those who read this article will be challenged and committed to move ahead, creating programs that treat all children as individuals, giving them an opportunity to develop and grow according to their own capabilities as well as their own limitations.

—Tommye Yates, *physical education and health consultant, Northwest Georgia Cooperative Educational Service Agency, Lafayette, Georgia.*

As one who is in almost total agreement with Mr. Leonard, I feel as if he has left me on third base when he could have hit a grand-slam home run. His thoughts are appropriate, but it's time to get past the generalities of simply identifying problems and get to the specifics of solving them.

Mr. Leonard is articulating what many believe is the mission and educational potential of physical education. It is our hope that many parents and educators will have the opportunity to examine the educational reform Mr. Leonard advocates.

—Harry Fritz, *president, National Association for Sport and Physical Education, Washington, DC.*

Evidently many school administrators don't see the need for elementary school children "to move gracefully and efficiently," for otherwise something so important to the life of the children wouldn't be left to chance. Few elementary schools have physical education specialists, and the typical elementary classroom teacher has had little or no training in the areas of motor learning and body management.

Seldom would school principals allow a physical education major to teach such specialized subjects as reading or math, but, of course, they all "know" that anyone can teach children the proper way to play! One need but spend a day with a good elementary physical education specialist to see the relationship between mind/body/spirit.

Yes, opportunities for lifetime sports are at the secondary level. But the introduction of these sport activities is even more important at the elementary level as an alternative to television and spectator sports.

—Richard C. Burnham, *physical education specialist, Seattle (Washington) Public Schools.*

Ribbin', Jivin', and Playin' the Dozens

Games kids play on the teacher or on each other are nothing new. That the teacher should learn the particular lingo of an ethnic neighborhood and what kind of deviousness takes place in the classroom goes without saying.

If teachers take positions in ghetto schools and are not informed about ribbin' and jivin' and playin', this reveals a serious weakness in their education courses, student teaching, or in-service briefing.

Dr. Foster makes too much of translating the language of the ghetto kids for the reader and too little of how to cope with the games that these pupils play. There is the obvious message that knowing what the obscenities youngsters are mouthing will ameliorate problems. Surely teasing about clothing styles is not confined to the ghetto, nor is it anything contemporary. Making a face and yelling at a teacher (woofin') and passing on remarks attributed to others (signifyin') are not new either. In any case, being informed about all of this is merely touching the tip of the iceberg. The problem comes down to how teachers handle these behavioral situations—a problem they have faced from time immemorial.

—Donald A. Wesley, *professor of education, Towson State College, Baltimore.*

Middle-class teachers in many inner-city classrooms must learn to deal with the games some of these children play. To do so, they should begin by viewing their pupils as coping in their own way as they struggle to survive, frustrated by two societies—their environment at home and their environment in school.

Teachers should be aware of and respect the home lives, values, and language of inner-city pupils. However, teachers must teach them that there is another language that they must use as they learn about their new society. Teachers should clearly define limits of behavior for these pupils, using warmth, firmness, and consistency, always realizing that these pupils will not respond to retorts.

Inner-city pupils have the same drive for achievement, recognition, and acceptance that all pupils have. Teachers' attitudes toward them can help them achieve these goals.

—Lucille L. Joiner, *Saint Louis, Missouri.*

Sexist Ad

Doesn't it seem ironical that the NEA, which supports the movement to rid the schools of sex bias, should accept the "Alive" ad for Hanes pantyhose (September-October)? I hope future ads will reflect a more "conscious" selection.

—Susan Shellar Truse, *speech therapist, Lake Placid, Tupper Lake, Long Lake, New York.*

Nutrition in Every Issue

"Food for Thought" (September-October) contained excellent information on nutrition.

May I suggest that *Today's Education* publish at least one article on some aspect of nutrition in every issue. If teachers at every level made nutrition education part of their curriculum in whatever area they teach, collectively we could educate students to eat nutritious foods.

—Alice Winnick, *teacher of a course in food service, Trenton (New Jersey) Central High School.*

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by Francis Gemme

Francis Gemme, a Founder of the Institute of Children's Literature, is the President and Publisher of *Gallery Books* and former President of Young Reader's Press.

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RESEARCH CLUES

By JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD
Public Information Director, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland.

Findings like those reported here have to be assessed carefully. What works in one situation may not in another. A single study seldom settles an issue or determines "the truth" once and for all. Knowledge accumulates slowly.

But new ideas deserve our consideration and often repay it. Moreover, we may sometimes be struck as much by the audacity and ambition of a researcher as by his or her results. If a study opens up a new field of speculation for us, that may be contribution enough.

What teaching methods are most effective? What curriculum materials are most effective?

It would be nice to have one teaching method that obviously tops the others. But in a wide-ranging survey of studies comparing the effectiveness of four different teaching methods—instructional TV, instructional radio, computer-assisted instruction, and traditional instruction—the result was a four-way tie.

A similar review of traditional versus innovative curriculum units reached a similar conclusion: Each type of curriculum did about equally well. A supplemental finding here, however, is that each curriculum unit was most effective at teaching the content emphasized in the unit. For example, a unit that concentrates on teaching elements of new math will teach these elements better than a unit that doesn't concentrate on them.

The authors take pains to spell out the implications for teachers. If teachers have certain subject matter that they want their students to learn, they should be sure to select curriculum materials (either traditional or innovative) that concentrate on that subject matter. Enough said.

The finding of no significant differences among instructional TV, instructional radio, computer-assisted instruction, and traditional instruction also provides some implications. If teachers want to vary their teaching by using a little instructional radio or TV, for example, they can do so with a clear conscience—the students should learn just as well. And if teachers have a choice between using a traditional lecture or some of the new technology to present a lesson, they could base the decision on a vote of the students, which might motivate them to work harder. Or teachers could even base the decision on whichever costs less to use, which might please the principal.

See Dean Jamison and others. "The Effectiveness of Alternative Instructional Media: A Survey." *Review of Educational Research* 44: 1-67; Winter 1974. See also, Decker F. Walker and Jon Schaffarzick. "Comparing Curricula." *Ibid.*, pp. 83-111.

Are female students motivated to avoid success?

A well-designed study of 700 male and female college students finds no support for the motivation-to-avoid-success concept. Furthermore, the authors show that numerous other studies have reached the same conclusion. Also, they point out some serious flaws in the methodology of the original study that advanced the idea.

The authors caution that while the concept may be plausible, it has been too readily accepted as true, primarily because it sounds good. The implication for teachers is that, when looking for reasons why some female students may be underachieving, the motivation-to-avoid-success concept shouldn't be automatically latched onto as the "right" diagnosis of the problem.

See Adeline Levine and Janice Crumrine. "Women and the Fear of Success: A Problem in Replication." *American Journal of Sociology* 80: 964-74; No. 4.

Can elementary teachers judge the reading level of written materials?

Not very well. If they're urban school teachers, they're likely to judge the reading level of a paragraph as being higher than it actually is. For example, a third grade urban teacher might examine a paragraph from

(Continued on page 12)

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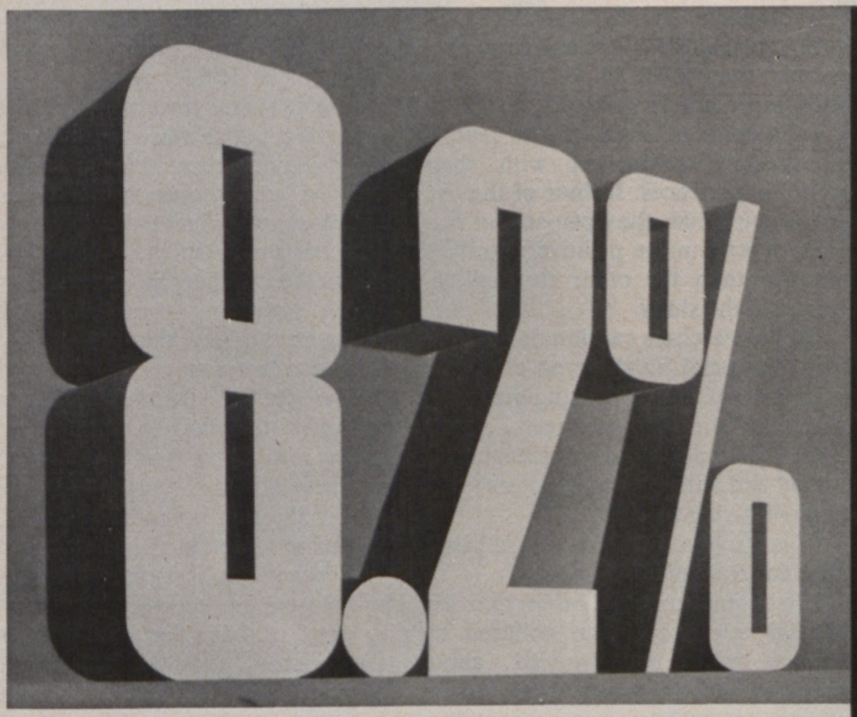

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third grade level reading materials and judge it to be on sixth grade reading level.

The reason may be that teachers in urban schools (primarily lower-class schools) are influenced by their low expectations of students. Teachers in suburban schools (primarily middle-class ones) aren't so likely to judge reading materials to be at a higher level than they are because they have higher expectations for their students.

Implications for the classroom? Maybe urban teachers should do some periodic soul-searching about whether they're letting their expectations influence the level of achievement that they'll accept from the students. On the other hand, maybe suburban teachers should ask themselves now and then if their expectations of performance for some students might be a little too high.

See Gerald W. Jorgensen. "An Analysis of Teacher Judgments of Reading Level." *American Educational Research Journal* 12: 67-75; Winter 1975.

How are the open schools working?

This study of more than 7,200 students in open and traditional schools (in grades 5, 6, 7, 9, and 12) is the most extensive yet conducted of how these two types of school organization compare in their effects on students. The study defined whether a school was "open" on the basis of its programs, not its architecture. Statistical controls were used to filter out the effects of students' background and family characteristics. The results were:

- The open school programs had a positive effect on student achievement in grades 5 and 12, a negative effect in grade 9, and no significant effect in grade 7.
- The open schools had a positive effect on students' college aspirations in grades 5, 6, and 7; a negative effect in grade 9; no significant effect in grade 12.
- In every grade studied, the students in the open schools had higher average scores on self-reliance.
- Students in the open schools were reprimanded in class more frequently than those in the traditional ones, especially in grades 5, 6, and 7.
- Students in open schools reported greater satisfaction with their school experiences. In four of the five grades surveyed, the open-school students reacted more positively to their teachers than the other students involved in the study.

The researchers caution that the effects produced by the type of school organization are all negligible compared to the effects produced by non-school factors (such as socioeconomic status) and within-school factors (such as an inspiring teacher).

This study raises a host of implications for teachers.

First, teachers in schools that are labeled open are often collared by parents who are worried about achievement. This study shows mixed effects on achievement. Essentially, achievement under open programs is comparable to achievement under traditional ones. This should help reassure parents and perhaps some concerned school board members as well.

Second, the study's conclusions of positive effects for open programs on student self-reliance imply that schools and teachers can effectively help students grow in talents other than the academic.

See Joyce Epstein and James McPartland. "The Effects of Open School Organization on Student Outcomes." Center for Social Organization of Schools, The Johns Hopkins University, Report No. 194, April 1975.

How do reward systems affect learning?

This rigorously designed study set up classroom experiments to compare student learning under different types of reward systems. One class was a control group, and the other four used release time from class as a reward for pupils. Teachers in the experimental classes gave random rewards, individual rewards, group rewards, and combined individual and group rewards. The study was conducted with elementary children identified as slow learners.

Giving group rewards—that is, only rewarding pupils when the entire class was behaving correctly—produced the greatest gain scores in achievement. These scores were twice as large as those of pupils in the control group. Also, the teachers involved felt that group rewarding produced a classroom atmosphere that was very conducive to learning.

The teachers themselves had only minimal training in applying the group reward technique, but they did so successfully. The study is another one in the plus column for use of behavior modification in the classroom.

Teacher implications: Keeping up-to-date on the latest developments in the use of behavior modification in the classroom should help teachers decide whether they can (and want to) use these techniques. They seem to help children adapt their behavior and to increase achievement, but there's strong opposition from many quarters on the way these techniques are used to "manipulate" children.

See John F. Jacobs. "Group Contingent Reinforcement with Slow-Learning, Culturally Deprived Children." *Journal of Experimental Education* 43: 40-44; Winter 1974.

Is classroom behavior related to student academic achievement?

No surprises here; the answer is Yes. This study of 90 second graders found that the child who is attentive, independent, and task-oriented in interactions with peers is generally more likely to succeed academically than the one who is distractible, dependent, and passive in peer-group activities.

This is one of those educational research studies devoted to proving the obvious. It succeeds.

See James McKinney and others. "Relationship Between Academic Achievement and Classroom Behavior." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 67: 198-203; April 1975. □

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TEACHER OPINION POLL

Professional Satisfaction

In its 1975 nationwide teacher opinion poll, NEA Research asked, "If you could make one change that you think would improve your own morale or professional satisfaction as a teacher, what would the change be?" Following are the percentages giving various answers to this open-ended question:

Lower class size	10.9%
Better curriculum, ability grouping, etc.	9.9
Better or fewer administrators	9.4
Higher salary	8.6
Improved discipline	7.4
Better relationships within school	6.5
Greater voice in policy determination	6.3
Professional improvement	6.0
More planning time, leaves	5.3
More time to teach	5.2
Support of parents, community	4.8
More status as a profession	4.1
Job security	0.9
In-service workshops	0.9
Lower retirement age	0.4
Other	13.4

In answering another question, nearly 8 teachers in 10 (78.4 percent) said that they liked teaching in the schools where they were: fewer than 1 in 10 (8.1 percent), that they disliked teaching *in their present schools;* and the remainder, that they had no strong feelings one way or the other.

Those 8.1 percent who disliked teaching *in their present schools* were asked their reasons. Their answers were as follows:

Dislike their administrators	53.1%
Dislike their students	11.5
Dislike location of their school	7.7
Dislike other teachers in their school	6.2
Dislike parents of children in their school	4.6
Other	16.9

Because teachers might wish to be transferred to another school, whether or not they liked teaching in their present school, NEA Research asked all respondents if it would be easy or difficult to obtain the transfer. One teacher in 10 (11.1 percent) reported that there was only one school in the system. Nearly 4 in 10 (38.6 percent) said that obtaining a transfer would be easy or fairly easy; and about 4 in 10 (41.6 percent), that it would be difficult or fairly difficult. For fewer than 1 teacher in 10 (8.6 percent), obtaining a transfer would be virtually impossible.

—NEA Research.

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THE AIR FORCE

LENDING WINGS TO EDUCATION

Do Americans Really Like

By **KENNETH KENISTON**
Chairman and Executive Director, the Carnegie Council on Children, New Haven, Connecticut.

I wish to pose a question that has preoccupied me for the last couple of years: Do we Americans *really* like children?

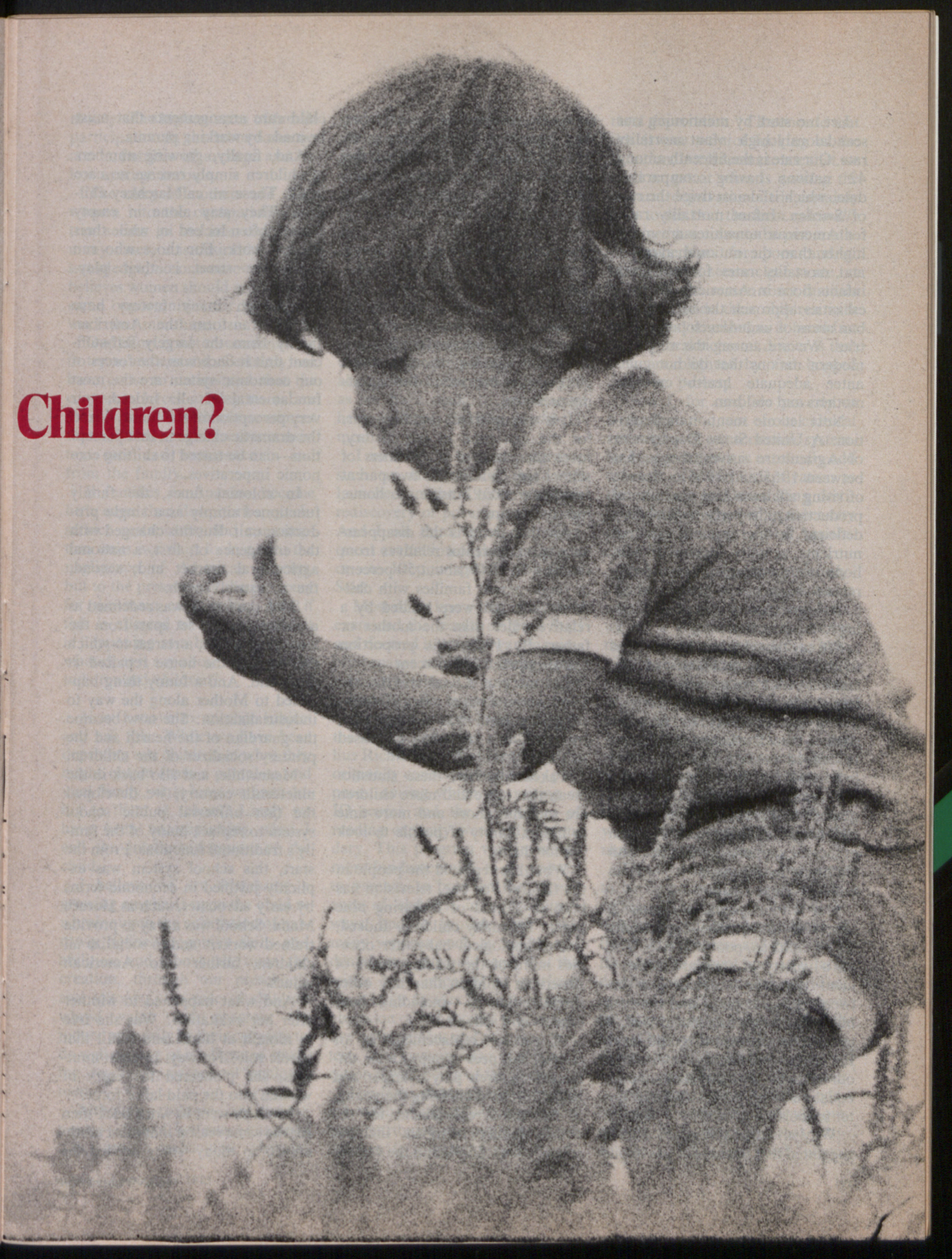
After considerable reflection, I suggest that the answer is: Yes, *if* our sentiments are to be taken as evidence. Yes, we do like children, and even love them—if the test is in the values we profess and in the myths we cherish, celebrate, and pass on from generation to generation. However, I am prepared to assert that in spite of our tender sentiments, we do *not* really like children. We do not as a nation really love them in practice, and I am sure that all of you will agree that what we do must finally provide the evidence that answers the question.

Why *is* it that we, as a nation, allow so much inexcusable wretchedness among our children in practice, while at one and the same time we, as individuals, nurture and profess such tender and loving and solicitous sentiments for our children?

Broadly, I think that the answer is this: Our sentiments for children have been rendered ineffective by the stronger influences and forces of the economic system that have grown up willy-nilly among us.

I have been preoccupied with the subject of American children since I joined the Carnegie Council on Children three years ago. The Council has been attempting to understand the unmet needs and problems of American children and families. Such is the assignment that sent me looking for an answer to the question, Do Americans *really* like children? Now let me give you a bit more detail about the practices that impel me to the negative answer I just offered.

Children?



Let me start by mentioning our scandalously high infant mortality rate. Our rate is the fifteenth among 42 nations having comparable data, which is almost twice the rate of Sweden. Infant mortality rates for American nonwhites are much higher than the national average, and mortality rates for nonwhite infants born in America's 20 largest cities approach the rates in urban areas of underdeveloped countries. We are among the very few modern nations that do not guarantee adequate health care to mothers and children.

Next let me mention malnutrition. A United States Department of Agriculture survey shows that between 1955 and 1965, a decade of rising affluence and agricultural productivity, the percentage of diets deficient in one or more essential nutrients actually increased. Millions of American children today remain hungry and malnourished.

So it goes; our sentiments of caring to the contrary.

We say that children have a right to the material necessities of life, and yet of all age groups in America, children are the most likely to live in abject poverty. In fact, one-sixth of them live below the officially defined poverty line. One-third live below that level defined by the government as "minimum but adequate." And we are the *only* industrial democracy that lacks a system of income supports for families with children. In this area, we are an underdeveloped nation.

Our school system, of course, is supposed to equalize opportunity for all children, poor and rich. Yet, on a variety of standard achievement tests the absolute gap between rich and poor, and between black and white students as well, is greatest at the twelfth grade level. Far from equalizing opportunity, our school system augments the inequalities with which children enter schools.

Why are such things so? I have suggested that the answer lies in our economic system. Let me examine this suggestion in the context of three problems, which I will call the depopulation of the family, the intellectualization of the child, and the perpetuation of exclusion.

The depopulation of the family is a label for what others call the disintegration of the family, the death of the family, or the rapidly changing family. I personally believe that American families are alive and kicking, though struggling against enormous disintegrating pressures.

It is a simple fact that last year, for the first time in our history, more than half of all mothers of school-age children in two-parent families worked outside the home, mostly full-time.

Another trend is the disappearance of nonparental relatives from families. In 1949, about 50 percent of single-parent families with children under six were headed by a relative other than the mother or father. By 1973, this proportion had dropped to 20 percent.

Let me cite a final statistic: In 1960, about 1 out of every 20 women giving birth was not married; by 1972, this ratio had increased to 1 out of every 8.

Taken together, these statistics mean that more and more children are spending more and more time in homes empty of people to look out for them.

What has replaced the people in the family? For one, television has become a kind of flickering blue parent for many children. Indeed, this technological babysitter occupies more of the waking hours of American children than any other single influence—including both parents *and* schools.

A second replacement is, of course, the peer group. Other unrelated children play a larger and larger role in socializing the young.

The third replacement for the child's family members includes schools, preschools, and the various child care arrangements that must be made by working parents.

And, finally, growing numbers of children simply receive no care at all. These we call latchkey children. They stay alone in empty houses, often locked in, while their parents work. For those who run loose, the street is their playground.

Although many factors have helped transform the American family from the largely self-sufficient unit it once was, the forces of our economic system are the most fundamental of all. Indeed, our very perception of the family—and the dramatic change in that perception—can be traced to shifting economic imperatives.

In colonial times, the family functioned simply as a single production unit. But this changed with the emergence of, first, a national agricultural market and, second, the industrial epoch.

Soon the family was redefined as a nurturing oasis set apart from the workaday world, a retreat to which the man of the house repaired at day's end. And a funny thing happened to Mother along the way to industrialization: She now became the guardian of the hearth and the primary socializer of the children.

Meanwhile, and also back in the nineteenth century, we developed the first universal public school system to replace many of the family's traditional functions. From the start, this school system was explicitly justified in economic terms by early advocates, such as Horace Mann. School was a way to provide trained workers and to socialize all children further into American values.

And what happened to Mother after her exaltation? Was she free to remain at home and fulfill that heroic role? No way. In great numbers, she pioneered the entry of women into the paid labor force.

Mothers went to work back then for the same reason that most mothers do so today—they needed the

money. The highest rates of female participation in the labor force occur in families of average and below average income.

The entry of mothers and other women into the occupational system seems to me irreversible. In many cases, it is desirable. To my knowledge, no one on our Council believes women should not have the same opportunities for productive work that men have.

Our effort is not to condemn but to try to understand. Certainly, we have come to understand that the economic forces at play on us are sharply at odds with our sentiment that children should receive consistent care and nurturance in and from the family.

If families in America become little more than dormitories, quick-service restaurants, and consumption units, we must look, not to the negligence of American parents, but to the pressures of the economy for the main explanation. And if this is allowed to happen—and it is happening at a hastening rate—what does it say about our *real* attitude toward children?

Now I move to another subject and ask this: While we have been depriving our children of what they might obtain from a complete and vital family, what have we been doing to them at school? Lately we have been accomplishing what I call the intellectualization of the child.

I believe we are witnessing a growing emphasis upon the child as a brain; upon the cultivation of narrowly defined cognitive skills and abilities; and, above all, upon the creation, through our preschools and schools, of a race of children whose value and progress are judged primarily by their capacity to do well on tests of intelligence, reading readiness, or school achievement.

Although children are whole people—full of fantasies, imagination, artistic capacities, physical grace, social inclinations, cooperation, initiative, industry, love, and joy—the overt and, above all, the covert structure of our system of preschooling and schooling largely ignores these other human potentials in order to concentrate on cultivating a narrow form of intellect.

Our inordinate preoccupation with intellectual development and our presumption that it can be handily measured have not only shortchanged the general population of children in our schools but have also tended to hamper such efforts as we have made to give special help to those children needing it most.

I am thinking of those programs, such as Head Start, that were launched in the 1960's after our rediscovery of poverty and racism. And I am thinking of our subsequent evaluation of those programs or—to keep it specific—of Head Start.

Most of us know that evaluators examined the results of Head Start and deemed it gravely wanting simply because it failed to raise—permanently—the IQ scores of the children in the program.

Well, the fact is—according to the testimony of its architect, Julius Richmond—that Head Start as originally conceived had many purposes, among which the raising of IQ scores and the developing of reading capacity were only secondary. This program was intended, more fundamentally, to give power to parents, to broaden the experience of children in noncognitive ways, and to provide them with many services such as health and dental care. It would seem that the critics were impelled to overlook these other factors by the veritable obsession of our society with cognitive development and with standard tests as a measurement of the educational well-being of the young.

The fashionable theory underlying much of the valuation of Head Start attributes the plight of those children to something called "cultural deprivation." I'll concede that this is one way of looking at the situation, but it seems to me that we need to get at what is *causing* the cultural deprivation. It is certainly easy to see that the term *culturally deprived* has come to be just another euphemism for poor and/or black. And it seems clear to me, at least, that the reason some families cannot provide their children with intellectual stimulation at breakfast and cultural riches at dinner is that they are blighted by and bogged down in poverty.

Now I, for one, see poverty as a manifestation, not of our cultural system, but of our economic system. So I suggest that it is extremely odd to speak of cultural deprivation as the primary problem facing destitute families, whether in inner-city ghettos or in impoverished Appalachian hollows.

The cost of not properly identifying the roots of our problem is manifold. In the case of Head Start, we often stigmatized those whom the program was intended to help.

I have emphasized Head Start, however, to underscore the tendency in our society arising from our obsession with cognitive development, with test scores. It is our tendency to rank and rate children, to reward and stigmatize them, according to their ability to do well in the narrow tasks that schools (or we psychologists) believe can be measured quantitatively.

This tendency to rank and rate is to be found at every level of education. The ability to do well on tests is a primary determinant of the child's progress and position in the world of school and, to a large degree, later on in the world of adults. We talk a great deal about the other human qualities of children, but when push comes to shove, the child who has learned to master test-taking gets the goodies —promotions, special tracks, educational credentials. Indeed, our schools are so structured that without the ability to get good "objec-

tive-test scores" or high "grade point averages," a child is condemned to almost certain failure.

Ironically, this fact lives next door to our professed devotion to the qualities we say we value: physical vitality, caring, imagination, resourcefulness, cooperation, moral commitment.

Why is this? Once again, I would not blame teachers or parents, but would point to the pressures of a modern technological economy, to our assumptions about measurement, and to the tracking and selection procedures for our occupational system.

Ours is a highly developed technological society in which we have adopted, usually without knowing it, the implicit ideology of what has been called "technism." This ideology places central value on what can be measured with numbers, assigns numbers to what cannot be measured, and redefines everything else as self-expression or entertainment. The development of so-called objective measures (which are, in fact, not at all objective) of IQ and performance is an expression of this broader propensity.

Thus, we measure the effectiveness of education by whether or not it produces income increments, not by whether it improves the quality of life of those who are educated. And we measure the success of schools, not by the human beings they promote, but by increases in reading scores. We have allowed quantitative standards, so central to our economic system and our way of thinking about it, to become the principal yardstick for our definition of our children's worth.

A related characteristic of our highly developed technological economy is its need for some mechanism to sort individuals into various occupational slots. By the time a poor, black, handicapped, or uncared-for child reaches fourth or fifth grade, a consistent position in the bottom track of the grade has become an almost inescapable adult destiny. The intellectualization of the child reflects the school's role in classifying and sorting the labor force.

Now let me turn specifically to the problem of the children born in the cellar of our society. Our sentiments in their behalf are always touching; our treatment of them is heartbreaking.

The tragic truth is that this one-quarter of all American children today are being brought up to fail. This figure is an estimate, but we believe it to be on the conservative side. I am talking about children who are being deprived of the opportunity to realize a significant portion of their human potential.

One out of every seven children in America is nonwhite, and these children must somehow cope with the persistent institutional and psychological racism of our society. One out of every three children lives below the minimum adequate budget established by the Department of Labor and must face the multiple burdens of poverty.

One out of every 12 children is born with a major or minor handicap, and all of these children face the stigmas and social disabilities that accompany any handicap. One out of every 10 children has a learning disability.

Approximately one-quarter of all American children do not receive anything approaching adequate health care, nor did their mothers before they were born—whence our disgraceful infant mortality rates. Millions of children live in substandard housing. Millions attend deplorable schools.

The process by which children are disabled in our society is no mystery. Physical vitality, emotional caring, resourcefulness, and moral commitment in the child are undercut.

The process is cumulative. Inadequate prenatal care of mothers increases the chances that children will be born dead, defective, or sickly. Early malnutrition decreases the chances for robust physical vigor. Inadequate health care increases the chances of illness or transforms minor illness into permanent handicaps. The child born poor, nonwhite, handicapped, or of emotionally drained parents faces steeper odds against survival to adulthood.

Children of poverty are denied those needs that most Americans consider fundamental. They live in a world more dangerous by far than that of the prosperous. It may be a ghetto world of broken stair railings, busy streets, lead paint, and prowling rats or a rural world where families cannot maintain the minimal levels of public health considered necessary a century ago.

Such a world turns off initiative and strips children of the eagerness that more fortunate youngsters can bring to learning. And it teaches many children that the best defense against a hostile world is constant offense—belligerent aggressiveness, sullen anger, deep mistrust, and a readiness for violence.

Such children are systematically trained for failure. They learn that the best strategy for coping is never to venture out, to take no risks, or to be constantly on the attack. This pathetic sense of self and this view of the world is in fact an accurate perception of the messages our society gives these children.

Success stories—the poor boys who made it, the Blacks who became a tribute to their race, the handicapped who made contributions to our society—reassure us now and then that the poor *can* get ahead. But such stories are exceptional.

The fact of exclusion would cause us no grief if we were a society dedicated to gross inequality, if we were eager to waste human potential. But once again I am only reminding you of realities that

sharply contradict our sentiments and values.

The themes that dominate our social and political history sing with our commitment to equality and fair play. Nothing in our constellation of basic values even hints that our society should impose special burdens upon special children. How, then, can we understand the perpetuation of exclusion?

One answer, put forward for almost two centuries in America, is that those at the bottom belong there because they lack virtue, merit, industriousness, or talent. But no thoughtful person can accept such an unjust explanation. And here I suggest, once again, that the excluded are not the result of individual inadequacy or immorality but rather of the way our society works, the way it has worked for more than a century.

Let me point to one cold and significant fact: The distribution of wealth and income in this nation has not changed materially in 150 years. It has not been changed by our promises of equal opportunity, by our efforts at schooling, by general increases in our national prosperity, or by all of our efforts to reform and change and uplift those at the bottom of our society.

And thus it seems to me that the key explanation of exclusion lies in the nature of our economic system and of our unthinking acceptance of the ideology that buttresses it. Our system, as it has worked, has needed a large pool of drudges—and we have provided them. By the customs and laws and policies that perpetuate exclusion, we have created individuals and families driven by economic need to accept menial, dead-end, low-paying, insecure, hazardous, and boring work.

There are menial and boring jobs to be done in every society. The question, therefore, is not whether such jobs exist; the question is whether they are to be filled by paying decent wages to those who do them or by impelling them to be done by those desperate souls we keep in chronic need.

We must acknowledge how well our system has worked, given its goals. It has made us the most prosperous and technologically advanced nation in world history. Materially, we have profited, but we must realize that the profit has been reaped at costs that do not appear on corporate ledger sheets. These hidden costs consist of the misery and despair and neglect and hunger and want of that vast segment made up of those of us whom I have called the excluded.

In the long run, the price of exclusion is enormous—not only in dollars laid out for remedial services, prisons, and mental hospitals but also in the anguish and pain exacted by social tension and unrest and discontent. And, finally, this nation pays a moral and human price simply by tolerating a system that wastes the potential of many of the next generation.

In each of the three problems discussed—the depopulation of the family, the intellectualization of the child, the perpetuation of exclusion—I have suggested that the search for causes leads us not to blame the individual but the workings of that economic system, which for better and worse, pervades our national existence. And now let me conclude simply by stating and underscoring my belief that if these problems mentioned here are to be effectively solved, we must start to change the workings and assumptions of our economic system.

I believe that the beginning step is to recognize the way in which families and children have become the victims of our system. But even this first step is not going to be easy, for we Americans have been profoundly influenced by a tradition of individualism that makes it hard for us to perceive the larger causes of social ills.

Since our very founding we have emphasized the freedom of the individual, the opportunities of the individual, and the responsibilities of the individual. And, historically, we have also invariably tended to credit primarily the individual for his or her place on the social ladder. And this, of course, has given rise to our long custom of blaming individually those of us who have wound up suffering financial or social or moral perplexities. Out of that perception has come the long—and largely unsuccessful—history of our efforts to cure our social ailments by reforming and uplifting those individuals whom we have viewed as short on character or morality.

I believe it is time to see that there are certain social and economic forces that none of us individually can resist. And I think it is now indispensable for us to see that millions of American children and their parents who suffer unmet needs should not be blamed for crippling situations that are in fact caused by us all within this system.

No doubt individualism can and should continue to be a cherished value of this society. But it seems to me that it is time for us to behave like a family of related people rather than like a collection of competing individuals. It is time for old-style individualism to give way to some old-style sense of community.

All that this would entail, in fact, would be for us to translate those abundant and tender statements of ours into *practice*. Then it might be said that we *really* like children. □

The editors invite reader response to Dr. Keniston's challenging ideas, which were presented at greater length at the 1975 annual meeting of the American Orthopsychiatric Association. A fuller version of the text is currently under consideration for publication in the American Journal of Orthopsychiatry.

What Can We Do About Violence?

By WILLARD McGUIRE
Teacher, Maplewood Junior High School, North St. Paul, Minnesota; NEA Vice-President.

I believe that we teachers must begin to deal more actively with violence in the schools even though we may not yet have the answers.

The situation in too many of our schools resembles a series of guerrilla wars. Some students battle for dignity and respect. Some commit violence just for the sake of violence. Some are resorting to alcohol, drugs, or suicide attempts.

Recently, Senator Birch Bayh's Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency surveyed 757 school districts enrolling about half the nation's schoolchildren. These districts reported that 100 students were murdered on school grounds in 1973. Estimates derived from recent NEA Teacher Opinion Polls indicate that 50,000-60,000 teachers are physically assaulted every school year.

Also, 30 percent of secondary teachers surveyed by NEA reported that they knew of hard drug use by students in their schools. In another study, done for the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, 45 percent of high school students said that they drink at least once a week and about 60 percent of the students who drink said they were drunk at least once in the month preceding the survey.

School burglary and vandalism are also terrible problems. A few years ago, NEA said that the nation spends twice as much on pet food as it does on textbooks. Now we talk about spending more on school vandalism than on textbooks.

Is it any wonder that students and teachers are afraid! Teachers' fear is worsened by the increasing peer group support which disruptive students receive. In the past, erring students received little or no

peer group support. Now, many students support or appear to condone them. I believe this support is one of the major aspects of student behavior that we must learn to cope with.

We teachers have always lived by our wits, and being able to sense the right time to act has always marked a good professional. He or she knows how many times to halve or quarter apples on the blackboard before teaching about fractions.

Being able to sense the right time to act also marks those of us who can survive in today's violence-prone classroom. In addition to knowing when to act, we also need to know *how* to act in order to reduce or eliminate problems rather than to aggravate them.

Too often, our answer is to remain quiet. This helps us to survive, but it doesn't stop the violence. As a result of this survival mechanism, we are dishonest—not for personal gain, but for survival. (Students, principals, superintendents, board members, and the community are also guilty of dishonesty.)

We are dishonest with principals. "I didn't see anything," we say, or, "No, I didn't hear a scuffle outside my room," which means I don't want a smashed desk or car or head. Or, "I don't want a lecture about 'If you did a better job teaching, these things wouldn't happen in your classroom.' " We learn this very quickly.

Principals, on their level, do the same thing that we do: They lie. Unless they do, the superintendent asks, "What's the matter? Aren't you able to control things in your building?"

The superintendent, in turn, lies to the school board, or his ability to control things is in question. And the school board lies to the community.

The community concludes that the schools aren't exercising their power properly and that their kids can't read. Parents start telling their children, "You don't have to listen to that teacher." So six-year-old kids, sensing that no one is going to stop them, feel okay about cursing a teacher. Fifth graders throw pies in teachers' faces. Tenth graders sell drugs in the lavatories. Eleventh graders form gangs so powerful, and often so brutal, that the school has to invest in special buses to transport students across their turf.

All this begins because individuals at each level are afraid they will be deserted in a difficult situation by peers or superiors in the system. It isn't a case of the teacher or the principal or the superintendent who has lost control. We all have—including the parents.

Violence will not be stopped with more violence. So, what do we do? For what they may be worth, here are a few of my suggestions.

- We must start telling the truth about the problem. We can't make other people tell the truth, but if we start doing so, we will make a lot of people more honest. We shouldn't wait for it to start somewhere else. We teachers must lead the way. Let us take it upon ourselves to provide the example the students so badly need by telling it like it is.
- We need security from intruders in many school buildings. Both teachers and students need to be protected against the outsiders who come into the school and do violence. If the parade of winos, perverts, and thugs who daily enter our schools and cause trouble were to descend instead on a large downtown office building, I feel certain there would be speedy action to remove them and steps taken to prevent their ever returning. Why can't our schools, our teachers, and our students be equally well protected? We wouldn't eliminate violence, but we would reduce it and narrow the field of combat.
- Something must be done about students who are engaging in serious criminal offenses. No English teacher should have to rehabilitate heroin pushers. That should be a matter for the police and for another system besides the school system. We should define a reasonable range of problems which teachers can or should be able to deal with; we ought not to be expected to solve every problem. We must insist on proper action by other community agencies.
- We need to eliminate violence against students as a teaching technique or control device. We need to stop the violence caused by many testing programs and by any routine practices which we all know are no longer valid. Instead of lamenting everyone's else's behavior, let's work on our own. If we can improve what we do, we will have some basis for pushing others.
- We should encourage, design, and support experimental programs, alternative and other nontraditional approaches to educating students who are bored or unmoved by traditional approaches. (One thing we know for certain about any educational approach: The pupil-teacher ratio must be low. In some places, the powers that be give us 40 and 45 pupils and then wonder why there are problems.)
- I'm also becoming more convinced that we should work to establish preservice and in-service courses in how to handle the aggression (and other disruptive behavior) that we face. If we were well-prepared to deal with it, we would feel more secure, less threatened, and more adept at defusing potentially explosive situations.

These are some of my thoughts. They are not special or unique, but I want us to face the problem of violence squarely and begin to deal with it. I have little confidence that anyone else will do it for us. I have every confidence we can accomplish much if we all work together. □

Schools Do Make a Difference

reports the Philadelphia Federal Reserve Bank Study.

The following article presents highlights of a research study conducted by Anita A. Summers, senior economist, Urban Research Section, Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia, and Barbara L. Wolfe, economic consultant, Urban Research Section, and assistant professor of economics, Bryn Mawr College. Free copies of the full report of the study may be obtained from the Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia, Philadelphia 19105.

Do schools make a difference? Americans who traditionally cherish their beliefs in the power of public education have had precious little support for these beliefs in the past few years. Recent major studies seeking answers to questions about students' educational achievement have found the answers everywhere but in the school. James Coleman attributed student achievement chiefly to family background; Arthur Jensen, primarily to heredity and race; and Christopher Jencks, mainly to luck.

Now, however, on the basis of a study completed this year at the Department of Research of the Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia, the belief that schools can indeed make a difference is reaffirmed. Moreover, the major finding of the study holds that proper allocation and targeting of school resources not only promote student achievement but can help compensate for the disadvantages associated with poverty, race, and low ability.

The Federal Reserve study was conducted over a two-year period with a sample school population of 1,896 students in 150 elementary, junior, and senior high Philadelphia schools.

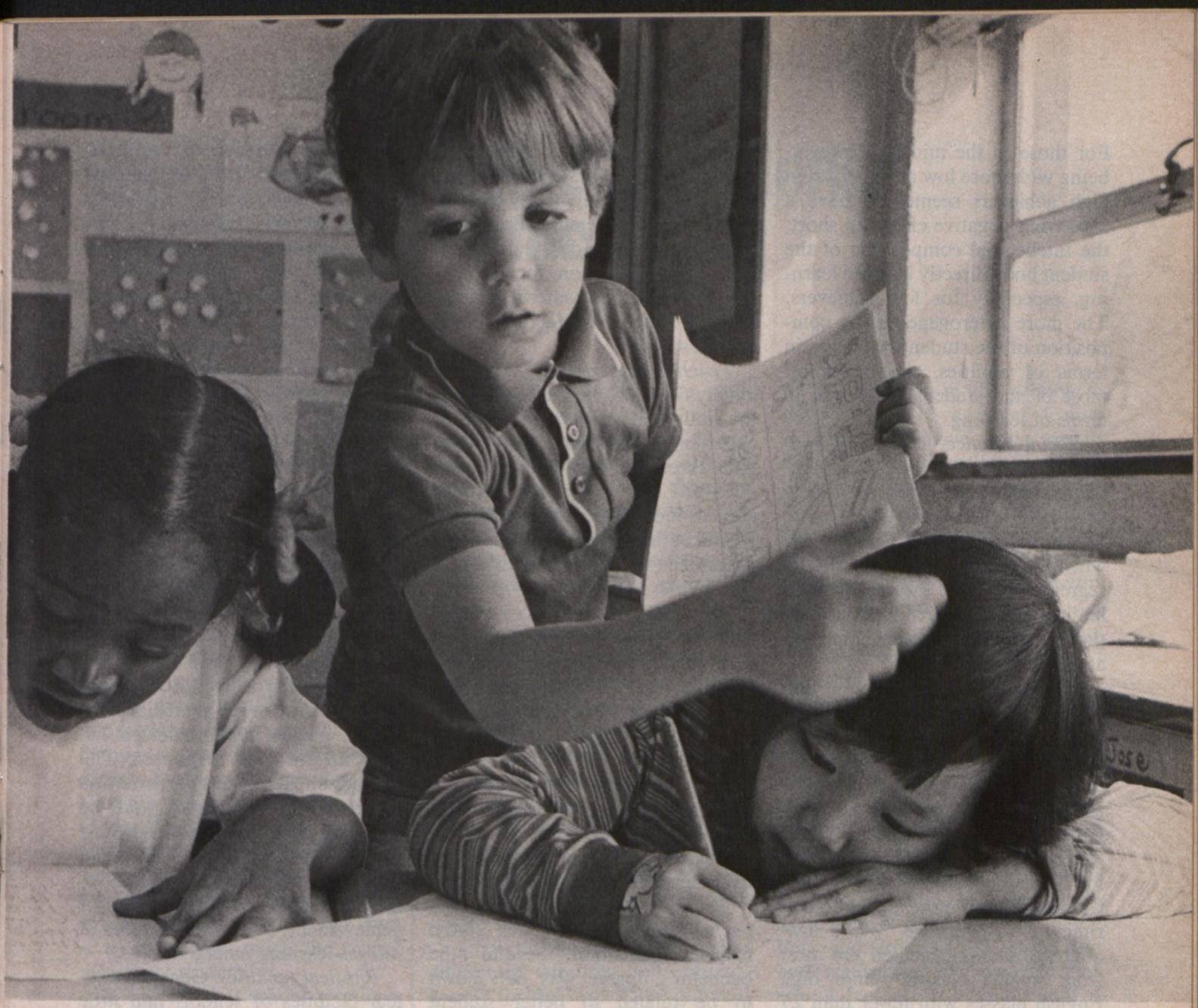
The study addressed this two-pronged question: Which school resources promote learning, and how should these resources be allocated to maximize the learning of various kinds of students? The researchers attempted to identify which resources make a difference to which types of student—high vs. low income, black vs. nonblack, low vs. high achiever.

Probably the key difference between this study and many earlier ones that attributed a student's academic performance almost entirely to family background is that Summers and Wolfe explored the question of the interaction between specific school resources and characteristics of specific types of pupils. Earlier studies investigated educational achievement in terms of averages for all students. Further, this study examined these interactions using data that were specific to the pupil. For example, the data were detailed enough to match pupils with their specific teachers.

The researchers believe that previous educational studies may have failed to uncover the full accomplishments of schools because few school inputs consistently benefit *all* students. (Yet, statistically, earlier studies posed the questions in a way that assumed this.) Low-income students, for example, may require a different dosage of certain school resources than high-income students do.

If averages are used, rather than an analysis that ties specific school characteristics to specific students, the averaging out allows the negative effects to offset the positive ones, and the real impact of what is happening is disguised, if not lost.

Summers and Wolfe believe that this analysis not only explains why so many earlier studies concluded that school resources have little effect on achievement but that it also points out the direction for increasing student achievement by targeting school resources. In short, they believe that increased learning can take place if school resources are targeted to those pupils who will benefit from them the most.



The researchers indicate that of course the socioeconomic backgrounds of students are important in regard to student achievement, but they contend that some adverse conditions that may be associated with such characteristics as race, income, or "low ability" can be ameliorated by what the schools can do. Socioeconomic characteristics are clearly *not* within the immediate control of the school, but many conditions affecting student learning clearly *are* in its control.

In choosing change in achievement scores as a measurable criterion, the researchers recognize the fact that parents want much more from schools than reading, writing, and arithmetic. Summers and Wolfe limited their investigations of student achievement to the basic skills, however, as the single most important function of formal education. To carry out the study, they used standardized tests in basic skills to measure student achievement.

Over a two- or three-year period, growth in student achievement in relation to a broad range of school resources and characteristics was examined with the object of searching out the impact of each on students with different abilities and traits. These findings are not to be regarded as conclusive, but rather as indicators of possible directional changes, since they deal with just one sample of students over one period of time. In the following summary, 15 of the more relevant items covered in the full report are reviewed. Note particularly which items this study suggests do or do not make a difference and for whom.

Heterogeneous vs. homogeneous student body. A key finding of the study is that the proportion of either high achievers or low achievers in a school can have an impact on learning. Low achievers performed distinctly better when they were in schools with high achievers, whereas the presence of low achievers generally appeared not to interfere with the learning of high achievers.

For those in the middle, however, being with more low achievers than high achievers seemed to have a somewhat negative effect. In short, the intellectual composition of the student body directly affected learning, especially for low achievers. The more heterogeneous the composition of the student body was in terms of abilities, the better off most of the student body was in terms of learning.

Racial balance. The major finding here is that both black and nonblack students seem to benefit academically when schools are more or less racially balanced rather than when they are more or less racially segregated. This is the study's main finding with regard to race, although certain variations appeared at different age levels.

Class size. The study found that smaller classes fostered achievement for disadvantaged students. (Other research suggests that smaller classes foster the cognitive and affective development of all categories of students.) Classes of 27 or fewer were particularly helpful for low-ability elementary pupils. Classes of 34 or more appeared detrimental to everyone. While low-ability students benefited the most from smaller classes, senior high English classes with fewer than 27 had the highest learning rates for students of any ability level. (It is important to keep in mind that these "numbers" reflect the reality of big-city systems. There is reason to believe that benefit would be derived from still smaller classes.)

Size of school. Smaller schools apparently mean increased learning, particularly for elementary and senior high students. Black elementary pupils and low-ability high school students seemed to benefit most from smaller schools.

Quality of teacher preparation. All elementary students in this study did better with teachers from higher rated colleges and universities—but especially those students in the low-income category. To evaluate teachers' colleges, the Gourman rating system was used. It is a method rating nearly all U.S. colleges and universities according to the quality of individual departments, administration, faculty, student services, and general characteristics, such as facilities and alumni support.

Teacher experience. Approximately one-third of the teachers in the study had three years or less of experience; one-third had more than three and less than 10; and one-third had 10 years of experience or more. The study specifically looked at the impact of teacher experience on students with different abilities.

The findings: Length of experience had a very different impact on high- and low-achieving students. High achievers at all levels seemed to do best with more experienced teachers; in junior high, English teachers with experience of 10 years or more were most effective with all students. However, in elementary schools, low achievers seemed to do best with new, relatively inexperienced teachers.

Teacher education beyond the bachelor's degree. In this study, teacher education beyond the bachelor's degree was not shown to be related to better student achievement. This suggests that much graduate study does not meet teacher needs. A more productive approach, perhaps, could be developed around in-service programs more related to these needs.

National Teacher Examination. Test scores in the National Teacher Exam seem to be virtually unrelated to teacher effectiveness and raise serious questions about their continued use.

Relationship between race of teachers and race of students. The study found no relationship between student growth and whether or not a teacher and student were of the same race.

Disruption. Harsh incidents involving various kinds of violence significantly lowered the achievement growth of high and middle achievers but had much less effect on low achievers. School policies that reduce the number of serious incidents would, in all probability, improve the learning of the higher ability students.

Dropouts. The greater proportion of dropouts a high school had, the less student growth there was, particularly for high achievers.

Remedial education. Remedial resources showed no particular difference for low-achieving children in this study. In general, the failure of remedial resources to show improvement in student achievement may be because they were aimed at other educational objectives or because they were employed too sparingly to produce growth—or because the data were not adequate to relate how much remedial education specific pupils received.

Head Start participation. The findings on Head Start participation *in relation to the stated goals of this study* are that the Head Start child arrived at the third grade at an improved level of achievement. Once at that higher level of achievement, no further increase in *rate* of learning emerged.

Physical facilities. General physical facilities of schools had little to do with student learning as defined in this study, although they may make a difference in terms of other educational goals.

Measurable characteristics of school principals. While there was a wide variation in the backgrounds of the principals in the schools studied, the variance in their experience, graduate degrees, and extra credits seemed to have no correlation with student achievement.

There are limitations to the Summers-Wolfe study, just as there are to all research studies. However, some of the findings of this study are particularly important.

The major finding is that certain school characteristics *do* make a

difference in student achievement, and that, although many resources are effective for all students, many are effective only when targeted to specific types of students.

Disadvantaged students can be brought to learning rates closer to those of their more advantaged classmates if they have access to particular resources—smaller class size, for example. High-ability students can move even faster if certain resources—such as experienced teachers—are directed specifically to them.

Peer group characteristics influence student achievement. Indeed one of the most significant findings is that the more heterogeneous a student body is in terms of race and achievement, the better it will fare in learning basic skills.

In addition, the way school resources are allocated can have an impact on pupil performance. The findings suggest that a more precise definition of equal educational opportunity revolves around the goal of equal progress in achievement rather than equal funding. Equity then would relate to what students get from their education in terms of achievement growth rather than in terms of how much the school spends per student.

It appears that school resources can be used to attain greater equity in educational opportunity—that school policy *can* help in compensating the disadvantaged.

Without necessarily raising expenditures, educational productivity can be increased in many cases by shifting resources into these areas that generate more growth.

Finally, the findings suggest an approach to accountability in which school administrators may well be expected to know which resources matter and then to execute their proper allocation as part of management responsibilities. Whole communities could benefit, and students might well have a better chance of reaching their educational potential. □

Some Reactions to the Study

The Summers and Wolfe study is particularly interesting and particularly important for several reasons. One is the kinds of questions it asks, another is the kinds of data it uses to answer the questions, and the third is the results it finds. On all three counts, the study makes advances on earlier work.

First, concerning the questions it poses: It asks about the effects on academic achievement of particular school resources, as other studies have done. However, it does not ask these questions for all groups of students alike, but for different kinds of students (high-achieving vs. low-achieving, high-income vs. low-income, etc.). The authors do not assume that a school resource has the same effect for all kinds of students.

A few studies have asked similar differential questions, but ordinarily only for the sexes (i.e., different effects for boys and girls) or for race (different effects for Blacks and Whites). Summers and Wolfe carry this differential-effect approach much further than it has been carried before.

Second, Summers and Wolfe use data that are a significant improvement over those used in most other studies—on three counts:

1. They are able to measure achievement *growth* of a student and examine effects on that growth, rather than merely achievement differentials at a single point among different students, as many studies do.

2. They have matched students with the teacher or teachers they had rather than with the average for all teachers in the school, as most studies have done. Consequently, they have more results about effects of teacher characteristics than any other study I know.

3. They have measured characteristics of each student's school to give measures of the school climate and the social composition factors which determine that climate.

I know of no other study that includes the richness of data of these three types.

Third, the study is refreshing because it relieves the dull sameness of most research on the effects of school resources, which find "little or no effects." It has become fashionable to find no effects of school resources on learning. But Summers and Wolfe *do* find some positive effects. In this, I see their study as a kind of starting point in the long and arduous task of finding and confirming specific effects of school factors on learning and of building a solid base of knowledge about what resources make a difference to children's learning and how they do so.

In a sense, previous studies have cleared away a large amount of conventional wisdom about school resources and learning, wisdom that when put to the test failed to pass. Now I believe that studies following and improving upon Summers and Wolfe's methods will be able to begin the more positive task of discovering what does make a difference.

Now for the results themselves. I will comment only on those that I feel should be taken with some caution. As I have implied above, I believe the results are generally

This study is an important step forward in the strategy for learning how schools affect achievement.

—James S. Coleman

sound and constitute an important development in our knowledge. However, they are a starting point rather than an end point. Just as previous studies that failed to find beneficial effects of various school resources should not have led to an immediate withdrawal of those resources, so these positive findings should not lead to immediate changes in their deployment.

There are several reasons for such prudence. One is that peculiarities of a particular sample can sometimes lead to results that appear statistically significant for that sample but that turn out differently in other samples. A case in point: David Wiley and Annegret Harnischfeger[1], using data from the *Equality of Educational Opportunity* survey, but only for Detroit and only for the sixth grade, found that the *time* students spent in school made a great deal of difference in achievement. But the effects disappeared in a reanalysis by Nancy Karweit[2] that included the remainder of the schools in the Detroit metropolitan area. Karweit also examined schools in four other large metropolitan areas and found no clear pattern. Nor was the Wiley/Harnischfeger finding confirmed in all taken together. Thus, the apparent finding disappeared when the sample was expanded beyond Detroit. This example should induce a note of caution into use of results from a single study, no matter how well conceived.

A second source of prudent caution lies in the general sharpening and strengthening process that occurs, sometimes on the part of authors, sometimes on the part of their interpreters, in going from statistical results to interpretations and implications. Several instances of this occur in the highlights of the study presented here, and I will mention a few.

One of these occurs in the statement on racial balance. The authors correctly state the complexity of their findings, but that is lost in the highlights as presented here, with a somewhat misleading result. The findings for black students in the sixth grade were that (as the highlights indicate in general) they did better in racially balanced schools. But in the eighth grade and in the twelfth grade, they did better in predominantly black schools. There were other complexities for the white students.

These findings do not bear out the consistency implied by the statement that "the major finding here is that both black and nonblack students seem to benefit academically when schools are more racially balanced." The upshot of this is, for me, that the different results at the different levels do not mean that opposite *effects* occur at these levels, but rather that neither result is to be taken seriously. It certainly does not mean, however, as in the highlights presented here, that one result is to be taken seriously and the opposing result in the other grades is to be discarded.

On teachers' experience, a minor point: The result that "low [elementary] achievers seemed to do best with new, relatively inexperienced teachers" seems, in my examination of the technical report, to hold only for the very lowest achievers and again raises some doubts about replicability.

The only serious misstatement of results in the highlights besides that on racial composition, according to my examination of the statistical results, is in the statement of effects of disruption. The effects of disruption were examined only at the sixth and eighth grades. At the eighth grade level, there appeared to be no significant effects for high, medium, or low achievers. At the sixth grade level, there were strong *positive* "effects" of disruptive incidents on achievement of low achievers and considerably less strong negative effects on achievement of high achievers. This is not at all the way the highlights summarize the results, which, I should add, is consistent with the authors' own discussion of their results.

These examples illustrate the kinds of modifications, artificial consistencies, and plausibilities that can occur in the movement from statistical analysis to policy implications. They show the need for caution in applying research findings and the need for validation and confirmation of results from further studies. But they should not seriously detract from this study.

It is an important step forward in the strategy for learning about how schools affect achievement. Its results are starting points, and both the approach it uses (the questions it asks and the kinds of data it uses) and the results it finds are foundations that future work will build upon.

—James S. Coleman, *professor, Department of Sociology, Univer-*

[1] David E. Wiley and Annegret Harnischfeger. "Explosion of a Myth: Quantity of Schooling and Exposure to Instruction, Major Educational Vehicles." *Educational Researcher* 3:7-11, April 1974.

[2] Nancy L. Karweit. *Is Differential Access to School an Important Factor in Student Outcomes?* Report No. 195. Baltimore: Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, May 1975.

sity of Chicago; author of Equality of Educational Opportunity (The Coleman Report), *1966.*

Schools must reallocate resources so that improved pupil performance and achievement become a reality.
—Gwendolyn C. Baker

This study indicates that certain school resources can and do have significant effects upon the academic achievement of some children. The resources considered are important but they fail to give adequate consideration to perhaps the most valuable resource that schools have: teachers. The degree to which schools do make a difference in the education of children is primarily the result of the teachers who staff them.

The study discusses the finding that the amount of education a teacher has beyond the B.A. makes no difference. It also indicates that the race of a teacher does not appear to be related to student learning. However, it cites evidence to indicate that some children perform better with teachers from higher rated colleges.

Many attributes can be ascribed to teachers but, from my point of view, two stand out as most important. The first and most important attribute is the attitude that individual teachers hold toward children. The second one is their expectations of children. These two factors have implications for the education of all children but are even more important for the youngsters who are low achievers.

According to Kenneth Clark, "A key component of the deprivation which afflicts ghetto children is that generally their teachers do not expect them to learn." The result, he says, is that "the child of whom little is expected produces little."

Low-achieving youngsters are often poor, from a minority group, or both. These are the children who need the attention and for whom teacher attitude is crucial. I believe that poor and minority children are failing in school, not because they are incapable but because schools do not design instructional programs that build on the cultural strengths of these children. Cultural difference is perceived as a deficit and is equated with inferiority.

By and large, teachers enter the classroom unprepared to teach children from varying cultural backgrounds. Preservice teachers must be trained not only to understand and appreciate cultural differences but also to develop instructional techniques and strategies appropriate for children who may differ from them culturally.

Attitudes and expectations are closely linked. When a child is perceived in a positive way and the teacher expectations are congruent with the perceptions, the overall effect upon the child can lead to greater academic gains.

In a recent study, I found support for the belief that perceptions can be changed through training. It is therefore both appropriate and necessary for teacher preparation institutions to assume the responsibility for developing positive attitudes about different cultural groups in prospective teachers. These attitudes will then encourage teachers to see the need for building the teaching process on the strengths and realistic needs of the members of these groups.

The type of training should receive much consideration. The program ought to provide students with an in-depth study of the history and cultural influences of the various ethnic groups within our society. Learning experiences and analyses of these experiences can provide an extra dimension to the training.

In addition to the type of training that is offered, the duration or length of the training program is crucial. Teachers' perceptions can be altered over a period of one academic semester. More change might be forthcoming if they are trained for a longer period of time. Curriculums that are integrated with culturally related content must become a permanent part of the entire professional training program for preservice and in-service teachers.

The Federal Reserve Bank study found that black and nonblack students seem to benefit academically when schools are racially balanced. Racially balanced schools can produce positive effects for all students, but to disrupt the life-styles of black children only for the sake of accomplishing this kind of balance is unfair and racist. Heterogeneous grouping by race should not be seen as a must for academic achievement but as an extra benefit for furthering group understanding and interaction.

Schools must reallocate resources so that improved pupil performance and achievement become a reality. They will need to give priority to those resources that have the greatest impact on students. Because teachers are not only the largest resource the school possesses but also the most important one, an emphasis upon their training and retraining is crucial.

—Gwendolyn C. Baker, *assistant professor, School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.*

When I first read about this study, my reaction was rather negative because I questioned how people with limited experience in the

This study should have relevance for school systems throughout the country.
—Daniel J. McGinley

schools could produce a valid report with such extensive implications. However, after studying the findings carefully and talking to Dr. Summers and Dr. Wolfe, I feel that the study is valuable and renders a real service to education.

I am deeply gratified that two economists using statistical methods have concluded that schools do indeed make a difference—a firm conviction of mine, based on 20 years as a teacher and as a school administrator.

Let me comment briefly on several conclusions from the study:

1. The finding that average and low-achieving elementary students do better in schools with more high achievers came as no surprise. We have known for years that students learn from a variety of stimuli. Certainly, the presence of high-achieving students should provide stimulus for learning.

2. The finding that low-achieving elementary school pupils do better in classes of fewer than 28 was to be expected.

3. Both school administrators and teachers would take it for granted that learning is greater in schools with fewer disruptions and fewer dropouts.

4. The finding that low achievers in elementary school seem to do better with new teachers than with experienced ones speaks to the question of what expectancy beginning teachers bring to the job and whether that expectancy diminishes as the years go by.

5. The full study found that for all types of students at all levels, there is a positive correlation between school attendance and growth in achievement. This indicates that not only do schools make a difference but that it is important to look for patterns of nonattendance. The implication for the elementary school is that if these patterns are detected early and are reversed, the student will benefit.

6. My personal experience bears out the finding that high achievers do best with experienced elementary and junior high school teachers.

7. I don't think there can be much argument with the finding, expressed in the full report, that average and high-achieving pupils will do better if they have high school English teachers who scored high on an examination in English.

8. Those who believe in the value of the new math and understanding mathematics will not be surprised by the finding, also in the full report, that junior high students do better who have been taught by teachers trained in the post-Sputnik/new math era.

In this period of shrinking financial support for public education, I believe that the findings of this study have important implications for educators. Certainly teachers and administrators cannot afford to overlook anything that has significant economic implications for school districts. For example, if, in fact, small schools are in many instances better places for children to learn than large schools, then we need to consider this when we plan expenditures.

If, as the data seem to indicate, elementary pupils will do better with better prepared teachers, then one course of action might be just to employ teachers from the higher rated colleges and universities. I believe that school districts must reject that option and instead make every effort to provide in their budgets adequate funds for district-sponsored staff development programs. The finding that teachers with higher degrees do not necessarily cause pupils to be more productive should cause school districts to place greater emphasis on developing their own programs of upgrading competencies of staff members.

The "no-effect" conclusion the study reached on remedial education (within the range of expenditures in Philadelphia at the time of the study) must be looked at in light of how much remediation has been given and of how early the problems needing remediation have been identified. Certainly, much more exploration into the question of teacher expectancy is greatly needed.

The measurable characteristics of school principals and their correlation with student achievement will require further study. Assuredly, there are more pertinent variables present among principals than those considered by Summers and Wolfe—experience, graduate degrees, and extra educational credits.

Basically, I believe that consideration has to be given in Philadelphia to these findings when we make decisions that affect both the school system and the individual school organization. I understand that statistically it is important to be able to replicate these findings to be sure of what they say. In the meantime, I believe we can take them in their present form and use them as additional pieces of data that will help us in making decisions that affect the schools. This study should also have relevance for other school systems throughout the country.

—Daniel J. McGinley, *president, Philadelphia Association of School Administrators.*

Replications of the study would . . . help to guarantee that schools continue to make a difference.
—NEA Research and NEA Instruction and Professional Development

The Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia study reaffirms that schools do make a difference. The conclusion that school resources, if used wisely, can make a difference in the achievement of students is refreshing even though we have serious questions about the use of standardized tests as the sole measure of student learning.

As was mentioned earlier, the study contrasts with other much-publicized, if not conclusive, research studies which maintain that a student's future success is due most importantly to his or her family background, racial heritage, or just plain luck—circumstances that schools can do little to change.

Anita A. Summers and Barbara L. Wolfe, who conducted the study, questioned the finality of those conclusions. They hypothesized and then supported the premise that school resources affect the achievement of different kinds of students in different ways. The idea that targeting different amounts of resources to different kinds of students can raise student achievement levels is implicit in that premise. To investigate their thesis, they followed 1,896 students through Philadelphia schools for two- and three-year periods, linking many variables to individual performance. Unlike most researchers, they did not rely on averages—a mathematical technique where positive effects of variables on the achievement of some students can be offset by the negative effects on other students.

We would like to see the *approach* used in this study replicated in various other school environments. The attempt to include and control variables commonly believed to affect student achievement is commendable, but we would like to see alternatives for standardized test scores used as measures of student achievement.

There are limitations to this study as there are in any research; the potential importance, however, mandates that its scope be broadened so that some of the conclusions can be reexamined in other settings. Summers and Wolfe recognize many of the limitations in their full report, and readers should keep these limitations in mind:

1. The students sampled were all from one big-city school system—and relatively limited within that population. To what extent are conditions in the Philadelphia school system representative of conditions in other school systems? For example, class sizes reported in this study are larger than the national average. Would it not be valuable, therefore, to look at class sizes in more typical school systems, using the Summers-Wolfe approach?

2. The study used only standardized tests as the measure of student achievement. Are there not other objectives in addition to achievement such as social and emotional growth? Are standardized test scores reliable and valid measures of achievement? If so, should they be the *only* measures used?

3. The design used required that all resource variables be quantifiable—an engineering model applied to education. The measures selected for some of the variables were questionable: Is the number of times a student misses school, for example, a good measure of motivation? Is any rating of a teacher's alma mater a satisfactory predictor of that teacher's effectiveness? Even though the Gourman rating appears to be related, can we still rely on it as a predictor, which is what we would do if we accept these results. Are there, indeed, more basic measures?

Furthermore, are not such important variables as classroom atmosphere, teaching methods, and curriculums—generally not quantifiable and thus missing from the study—related to achievement?

4. The design used in the Philadelphia study does isolate relationships between variables when they exist; relationships, however, do not necessarily show cause and effect. Does motivation cause achievement or does achievement cause motivation? If, in fact, disruption really does lower student achievement, may there not be, in turn, an underlying cause of disruption?

These four significant limitations may also have contributed to the conclusions that some variables such as physical facilities and the advanced degrees of teachers appear not to have direct effect on student achievement. Because of the limited nature of this study, these findings should not be viewed as conclusive. For these and other reasons, replications of the Federal Reserve study would add much to our knowledge about the effective use of school resources and would help to guarantee that schools continue to make a difference.

—NEA Research and NEA Instruction and Professional Development.

Don't Just Say "Great!"

By **RICHARD D. SHEPARDSON**
Assistant Professor of Education and Coordinator of Elementary Field Experiences, University of Iowa, Iowa City.

Critics complain of a general lack of praise and positive reinforcement in today's classrooms. Evaluators have armed themselves with various coding systems to "objectively" record teacher behavior and compute "praise/criticism ratios."

The popular belief appears to be that principals and supervisors can objectify their evaluations by counting the number of positive remarks teachers make. Supposedly, by comparing this figure either to the frequency of negative comments or to a predetermined standard, they can arrive at an index of teacher effectiveness. The process looks objective and has appeal, but it should be rejected, as it is based on faulty assumptions.

Statements of praise are qualitatively different one from another and do not always serve as positive reinforcement. With regard to the effect of praise on student performance, research conclusions have been inconsistent. In 1964, Wallace A. Kennedy and Herman C. Willcutt made a review of educational research and reported "praise was a reasonably stable incentive from study to study, contributing an incremental effect upon the performance and learning of schoolchildren." Recently, however, an extensive review made by Barak Rosenshine and Norma Furst concluded that praise did not show a significant and consistent relationship to student achievement.

One explanation of these conflicting findings is that praise is many-faceted and has a differential effect depending on the characteristics of the children, the time, and the grade level. For example, with regard to time, I studied 40 elementary classrooms and found that at the beginning of the school year praise had a high positive correlation of .60 with student participation but that by May this correlation had dropped sharply to .15. This suggests that sugar-coated comments such as "Great!" "Good!" and "Hey, I like that idea!" often have a supportive effect initially but may ring hollow at the end of the school year.

There is good reason to believe that praise given publicly has a different effect on students than that which is given privately. Also, stereotyped praise and specific praise seem to affect children differently. In their book on microteaching, Walter R. Borg and his associates suggested that specific praise provides valuable feedback as opposed to such general terms as "very good," "right," "fine," and "excellent." In support of using specific praise, Edmund Amidon and Michael Giammatteo reported that superior teachers gave specific praise more often than an average group of teachers. They also noted that superior teachers extended more praise after student-initiated ideas.

Further, to raise another concern with using frequency of praise as a measure of teacher effectiveness, Arno Bellack's research indi-

cates that many teachers are guilty of using praise indiscriminately. Approximately 80 percent of all judgmental teacher responses are positive, even when the students' actions are inappropriate to the task at hand.

All of this emphasizes the point that what type of praise is given, how much is given, when it is given, and to whom all seem to be important factors. Statements of praise, therefore, should not be added, subtracted, and compared like batting averages.

In the same light, criticism has a differential effect on students. Rosenshine and Furst found harsh criticism to have a strong negative correlation with student achievement and mild criticism to be not significantly correlated with student achievement.

Other teacher behaviors can be more effective than praise as a reinforcer. One of the real concerns related to using frequency counts as a basis for evaluation is that it channels teacher behavior down unproductive paths and away from other potentially effective teacher behaviors.

Teacher silence, for example, can serve as a useful reinforcing agent. Mary Budd Rowe reported that if teachers will prolong their average "wait time" to five seconds, or preferably longer, before commenting on a student response, length of student responses will increase. Rowe also noted that as teacher wait time is prolonged, the number of student questions increases, more student-to-student interaction occurs, and teachers begin to show much more variability in the kinds of questions they ask.

Silence after students' remarks can communicate to the students that the teacher is giving them undivided attention. As a result, silence can say much more to students than sugar-coated words of praise.

Identifying the source and giving credit to students for their ideas is good teaching. Instead of merely saying "Good," "Right," and the like, teachers can dignify students by asking them to repeat their ideas ("That's interesting. Did all of you hear John's statement?") or by comparing one student's idea to another's ("Jim, how does that fit with Mary's idea?").

Probing is another valuable reinforcing agent. An example of probing is when a teacher asks a student who has just commented to clarify or reconsider his or her response.

In my own study, I found a higher correlation at the end of the year between probing and student performance than between teacher's use of specific praise and student performance. Also, Rosenshine and Furst found probing to be consistently and positively related to student achievement whereas they did not find praise to be so related. □

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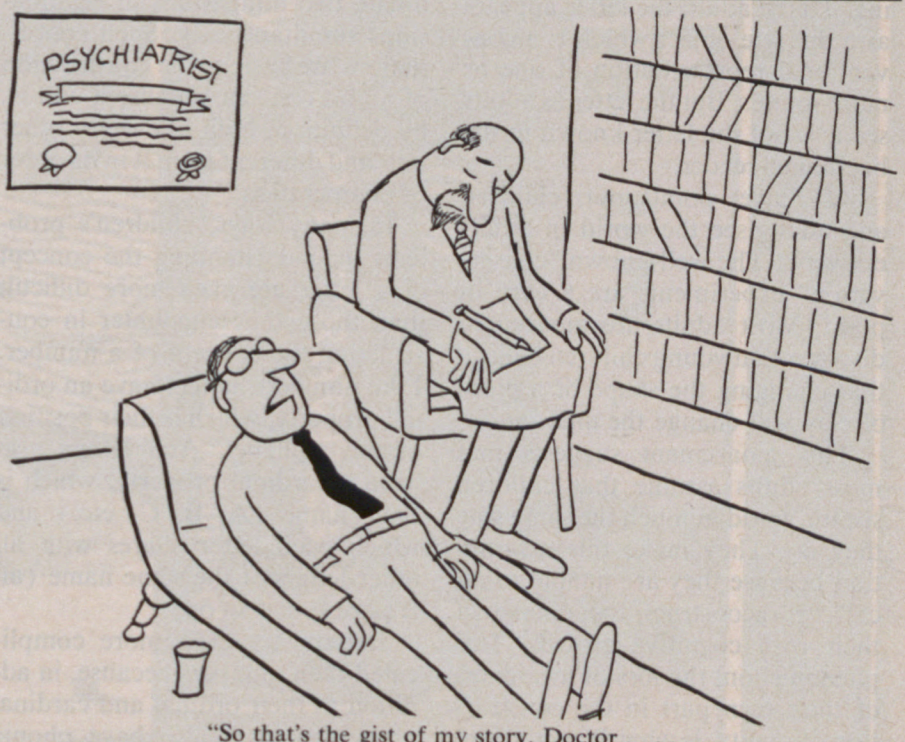


"So that's the gist of my story, Doctor . . . : Students fall asleep in my classes."

We Can Teach Reading Better

says **DAVID ELKIND**
Professor of Psychology, Psychiatry, and Education, University of Rochester, New York.

Can we do a better job of teaching children to read? Yes, I believe we can if we take into consideration how their minds develop. To illustrate this point, I'd first like to discuss beginning reading and the child's concept of letters and then move on to how children who are more advanced readers use their accumulated storehouse of knowledge to give meaning to the printed word.

A basic error in much beginning reading instruction centers about the concept of the letter, which is, in many ways, the basic unit of reading. To the adult, the letter appears as a discrete object which is a conventional representation of one or more sounds. But the letter as adults see it is not the letter known to the beginning reader.

As Piaget points out, children and adults see the world in different ways. The well-known "conservation" experiments are a case in point. Most adults are amazed to discover that young children believe that changing the shape of a piece of clay will change the *amount*.

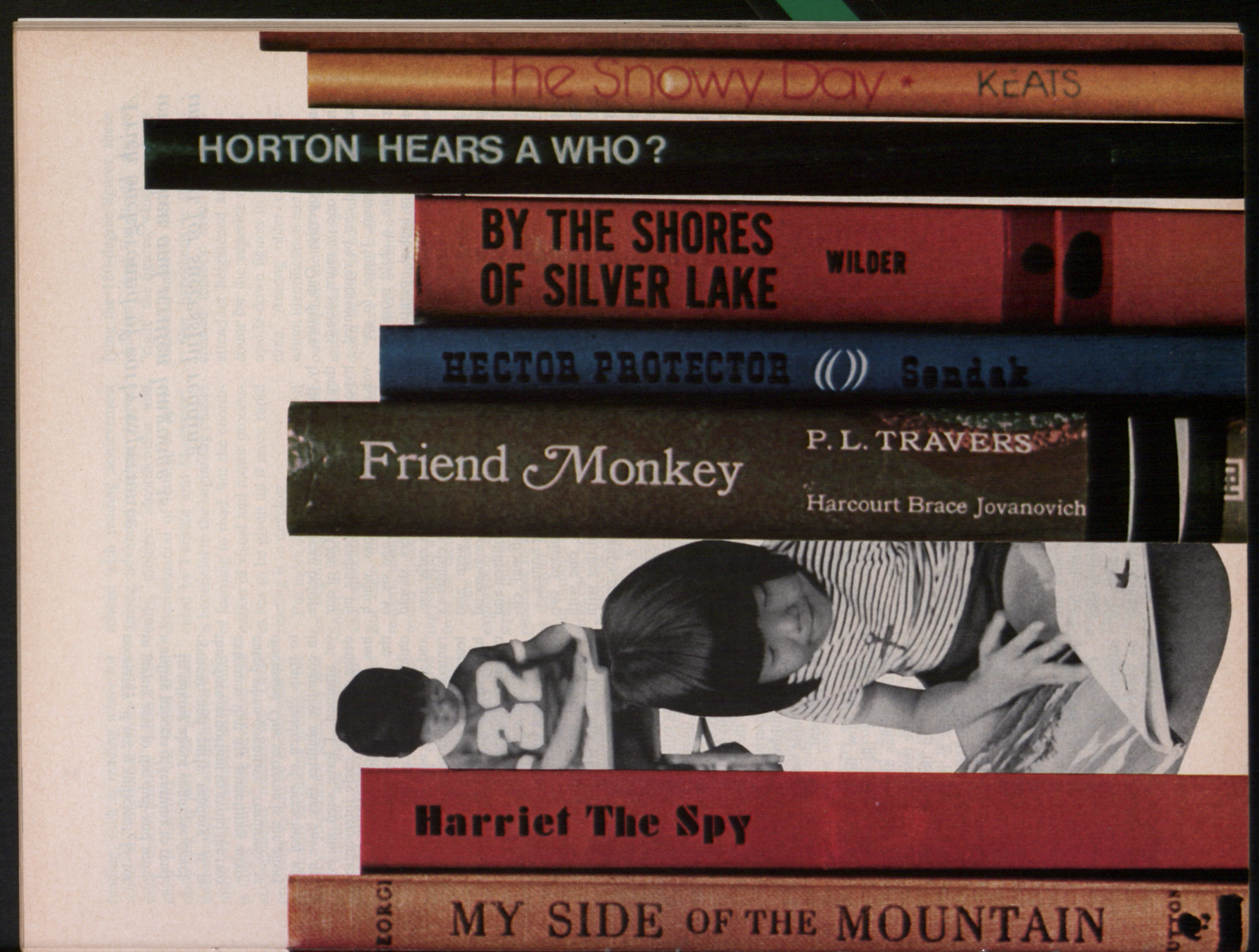
This amazement suggests that most adults assume that children see the world in much the same way they do. They make this assumption because they are unable to recall or reconstruct the course of their own cognitive growth. This phenomenon, the loss of awareness of their own part in the construction of reality, is what Piaget means by *externalization*.

In general, externalization serves a useful adaptive purpose and allows the individual to operate more effectively in the environment. *Externalization* only becomes a problem when we try to teach the young, that is, when we try to present material that we have already mastered. In that case, we as adults, who have conceptualized and externalized many facets of the world, have trouble appreciating the difficulties children encounter in their attempts at making sense out of their world.

From the child's point of view, the concept of the letter poses many of the same problems as concepts of number, space, and time. Before the age of six or seven, most children lack a true unit or number concept because they cannot coordinate two dimensions or relationships simultaneously. Such coordinations are basic to the construction of a unit concept because a unit is, by definition, both like every other unit and different from it in its order of enumeration.

In many ways, children's problems in understanding the concept of a letter are even more difficult than those they encounter in constructing the concept of a number. Like numbers, letters have an ordinal property, which is their position in the alphabet. And letters also have a cardinal property, which is their name (A, B, C, etc.) and which each letter shares with all other letters of the same name (all B's are B and so on).

Letters are even more complicated than numbers because, in addition to their ordinal and cardinal properties, they also have phonic


The Snowy Day • KEATS
HORTON HEARS A WHO?
BY THE SHORES OF SILVER LAKE
WILDER
HECTOR PROTECTOR
Sendak
Friend Monkey
P. L. TRAVERS
Harcourt Brace Jovanovich
Harriet The Spy
MY SIDE OF THE MOUNTAIN

A rich background of early experience with spoken and written language is important for successful reading.

contextual properties. One letter can stand for one or more sounds and one sound can be represented by different letters. Hence, to understand phonics, a child must be able to perform logical operations on letters and sounds to understand all their possible combinations.

Many different kinds of evidence support this logical analysis of the difficulties in early reading. Written languages that are more regularly phonetic than English are apparently much easier to learn to read than is English. In these alphabets such as Japanese, the logical difficulties are removed because one and the same element always has one and the same sound regardless of its position or phonetic context.

In addition to this cultural evidence, various collaborators and I have published a body of research which also points to the logical difficulties inherent in beginning reading. We have shown that reading achievement and logical ability are highly correlated; that average readers are superior in logical ability to slow readers of comparable overall intelligence; and that training children in logical skills has a significant positive effect upon some aspects of reading achievement.

All these findings are consistent with the view that the letter is a complex logical construction that requires the ability to reason, which Piaget attributes to the appearance of *concrete operations* for its full elaboration. To test this hypothesis in still another way, a collaborator and I have begun, in the last few years, to look at the cognitive competencies of children who read early, that is, children who read before they enter kindergarten. One of our hypotheses was that if reading involves concrete operations, which are usually attained at age six to seven, then early readers should show these abilities at an early age. In addition to assessing children's cognitive abilities, we were also interested in the personal-social characteristics of these children and in the educational-emotional climate that prevails in their homes.

We have now completed two studies of early readers, one with 16 early readers and another with 38. In both studies, the early readers were matched with a control group of non-early-reading children on such things as age, sex, IQ, and socioeconomic status. All the children were given a large battery of achievement and intelligence tests as well as personality and creativity tests. In addition, their parents were interviewed. In both studies, we found that early reading children were superior to non-early-reading children on Piagetian measures of conservation. They were also better on certain psycholinguistic measures, such as sound blending.

It is important to emphasize, however, that cognitive construction of a letter is only one of the requirements for successful early reading. Our parent interview data suggest that a rich background of early experience with spoken and written language provided by homes where books and magazines are plentiful and where parents frequently read to the children is also important for successful reading. In addition, social motivation to please significant adults appears to be a necessary, if not a sufficient, factor in giving zest to the dull and unrewarding process of learning to read.

In talking about cognitive development and early reading, it is therefore important to avoid the two extremes that are sometimes advocated when cognitive "readiness" is discussed. One extreme is the effort to train children of preschool age in cognitive abilities they have not yet attained. I have seen no evidence that such early intervention has any lasting effectiveness. But the alternative extreme, allowing children to learn in their own time and in their own way, is also unwarranted. Children need instruction in learning to read, but only after they have demonstrated the requisite cognitive abilities.

In summary, there appear to me to be at least four requirements for successful beginning reading: a language-rich environment, attachment to adults who model and reward reading behavior, attainment of concrete operations, and an instructional program. All other things being equal, namely, that the children in question are of at least average intellectual ability and are free of serious emotional or physical handicaps, the presence of these four characteristics should ensure that most children will learn to read with reasonable ease and considerable enjoyment.

Let us now turn to advanced reading and the construction of meaning. It has already been suggested that the intellectual processes involved in beginning reading are analogous to those involved in concept formulation. A child who is learning to read has to coordinate similarities and differences and construct concepts of letters which are both like every other letter in that they represent sounds but different in the specific sounds they stand for.

Concept formation also involves inferential processes, and these can be observed in beginning reading as well. Many errors in beginning

reading, such as reading *where* for *when*, are inferential errors rather than discrimination errors. The child is inferring the whole from observing the part (the *wh*). Such inferential errors are high-level cognitive errors inasmuch as the child is doing what more advanced and accomplished readers do. These processes should be encouraged by temporarily sacrificing accuracy for fluency. Experience indicates that once children are fluent readers, they can always correct for accuracy, but an overconcern with accuracy can retard fluent reading.

When concept formation and inferential aspects of reading have become automatized and children can recognize printed words with ease and rapidity, they enter the phase of rapid silent reading. In silent reading, the major cognitive task is no longer concept formation and inference but rather interpretation, the construction of meaning. In constructing meanings, children have to relate representations—in this case, printed words—with their own concepts and ideas. Success in interpretation, or comprehension, depends upon a different set of characteristics than learning to read, and these are described below.

Visual Independence. Rapid silent reading and comprehension require, at the very outset, that the visual verbal system become independent of the sensory motor system. Rapid reading involves fewer motor fixations and wider visual segments of scanning, and this in turn means less motor involvement and more conceptual inferential activity. In effect, in rapid silent reading, the brain does more work and the eyes do less. We have some recent evidence that supports the importance of visual independence in advanced reading.

In one study we found that while tactile discrimination of sandpaper letters was positively related to reading achievement among beginning readers, it was negatively correlated with reading achievement among advanced readers. Apparently, motoric identification and discrimination of letters, as advocated by Fernald and Montessori, is beneficial in the beginning phases of learning to read, but the coordination of visual and motor processes has to be given up if more rapid reading is to develop.

Put more concretely, it is helpful for beginning readers to use their fingers as markers to direct attention and exploration of printed matter. But once they become advanced readers, using a finger as a marker would impede reading. Rapid reading requires a certain independence from the tactile motor system.

Some recent data on perceptual exploration and memory demonstrate this growth of visual independence in another way. Children at different age levels (from age four through age eight) were shown large cards upon which were pasted 16 pictures of familiar objects. On one card, the pictures were pasted in an upright position whereas on another, the same pictures were pasted at 180 degrees from their normal position.

At each age level, half the children viewed the cards with the pictures upright, while the other half viewed the cards with the pictures at 180 degrees to the upright. Each child had two tasks: to name each of the figures on the cards and then to recall as many of the figures as possible once the cards were turned over.

Among young children (age four to five), there was a significant difference in recall scores in favor of the figures rotated 180 degrees. This difference, however, diminishes as children grow older and disappears at about the age of eight or nine. A similar pattern appears to hold true for children with limited hearing, who use finger spelling and vocalization in communication. These data suggest that in young children the motoric system is still tied to the visual system. In identifying the 180-degree figures, these children may implicitly try to "right" the figures, which produces increased motoric involvement.

Our hypothesis is that the increased motoric involvement and attendant heightened attention account for the superior memory for upside-down figures in young children. Among older children, in whom identification can occur without implicit motoric "righting," this attentional advantage for upside-down figures is no longer present.

There is thus some direct as well as indirect evidence that rapid, silent reading involves the attainment of considerable visual independence from the tactile motor system. Apparently this occurs even among children with limited hearing who use finger spelling as well as vocalization to communicate. Indeed, among older deaf children, the rapidity with which they finger spell and read finger spelling is very much like rapid reading. Visual independence amounts to a kind of automatization of the visual aspect of reading in which the visual scanning process is relatively independent of tactile motor input.

Meaning Construction. A second prerequisite to advanced silent reading is facility in meaning construction. From a cognitive development point of view, reading comprehension is not a passive process of decoding written symbols. On the contrary, it must be regarded as a constructive activity analogous to creative writing.

The point is that meaning is not inherent in written or spoken words but rather that the words are given meaning by readers or listeners who interpret them within their own storehouse of knowledge. Silent readers give meaning to the words they read by relating these to the conceptual system they have constructed in the course of their development. The richness of meaning they derive from their reading will depend both upon the quality

of the material they are reading and the breadth and depth of their conceptual understanding. Satisfaction in reading often derives, in part at least, from the degree of fit between the material being read and the conceptual level of the reader.

A recent doctoral dissertation supports this position. The author chose 33 books that had won Newbery awards for excellence. She then determined how frequently each had been checked out over the preceding three-year period in a number of libraries. On the basis of these data, she selected the five most frequently chosen books and the five least frequently chosen books from her original list. She then analyzed the books from the standpoint of their congruence with the conceptual systems of the age group for which they were written. She found that the five most frequently chosen books were congruent with the cognitive level of the children for whom they were written, while this was not true for the five least chosen books. Apparently, other things being equal, children prefer stories which have meaning within their own cognitive organization.

Comprehension, or the construction of meanings, is also helped by the children's own efforts at giving meaning to (i.e., representing) their own experiences. The more opportunity children have to experience the effort and satisfaction of representing their own thoughts verbally and otherwise, the better prepared they will be for interpreting the representations of others.

In contemporary education, teachers often do not leave time for the children to write creatively or otherwise. But I believe that the more children write, the more they will get from their reading. Writing and reading are reciprocal processes of meaning construction which mutually reinforce one another.

Receptive Discipline. A third prerequisite to effective silent reading seems at first to be a contradiction to what has just been said about the readers being an active participant in the process. This prerequisite is that the reader have a receptive attitude, a willingness to respond to the representations of others. Good readers, like good listeners, have to be simultaneously passive (receptive to the representations of others) and active (interpreting those representations within their own conceptual framework).

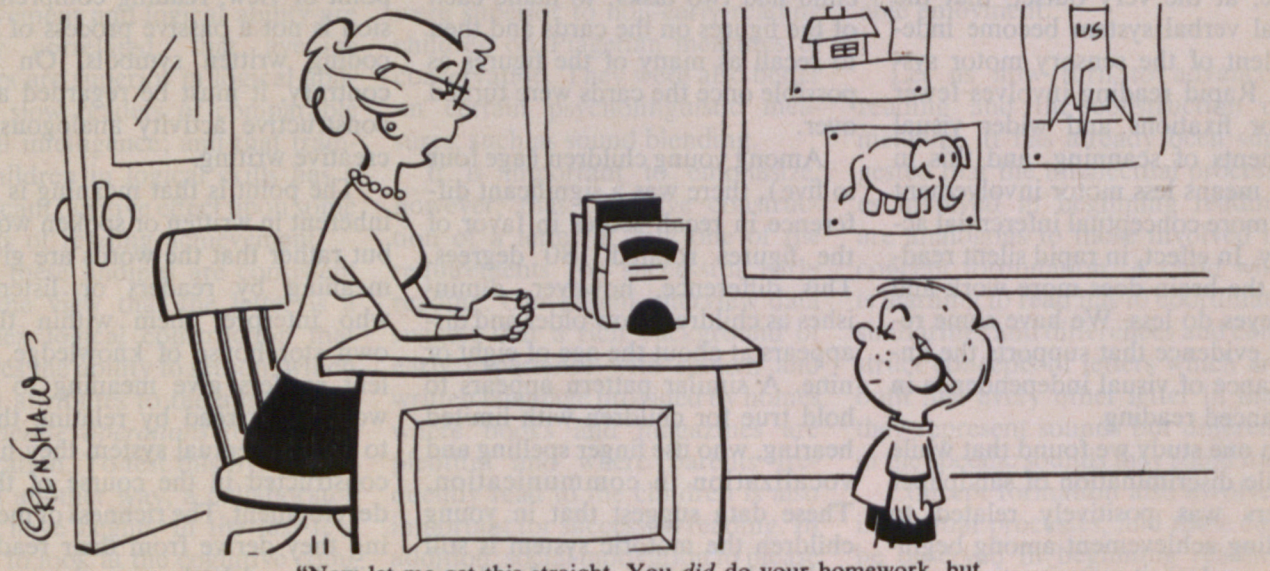
Many young people are poor readers for the same reason that they are poor listeners: They are more interested in representing their own thoughts and ideas than they are in interpreting the thoughts and ideas of others. They lack what might be called receptive discipline.

Young people demonstrate receptive discipline when they attend fully to the representations of others and resist following their own free associations and tangents. Many so-called slow readers have problems with receptive discipline and not with rapid reading.

Receptive discipline is not innate and can be facilitated and taught. Text material that is of interest to readers and at their level of competence facilitates a receptive attitude. Another way to encourage receptive discipline is to have goals for nonrecreational reading. When young people (or adults for that matter) know that they will have to present what they have read to a group, they are likely to be more attentive than if this were not so.

These are but a few examples of techniques that might be employed to encourage receptive discipline. Whatever techniques are used to instill it, receptive discipline seems to be an important ingredient for successful reading comprehension. □

This article was adapted from Dr. Elkind's article, "Cognitive Development and Reading," *Claremont Reading Conference 38th Yearbook*, Claremont (California) Graduate School, 1974.



"Now let me get this straight. You *did* do your homework, but you made it into a paper airplane, and it was hijacked to Cuba."

Helping the Hyperkinetic Child

By ARNOLD H. ZUKOW, M.D.
Pediatrician, Encino, California, and Associate Clinical Professor of Pediatrics, UCLA School of Medicine.

Dr. Zukow spoke at greater length on this topic before the Nevada Academy of Family Physicians earlier this year.

Readers are invited to send in their reactions and comments on the article and/or on the subject of treating hyperkinetic children with drugs, a topic that has aroused considerable controversy in the press, despite the favorable experience of many physicians in using drugs such as Ritalin to treat so-called hyperkinetic disorders.

Dr. Zukow's views are in general agreement with the HEW Report of the Conference on the Use of Stimulant Drugs in the Treatment of Behaviorally Disturbed Young School Children, *prepared by panelists from the fields of education, psychology, special education, pediatrics, adult and child psychiatry, psychoanalysis, basic and clinical pharmacology, internal medicine, drug abuse, and social work.*

For further reading on the topic, see the bibliography at the end of the article.

Hyperkinetic children can have a negative effect on all those who care about them—especially their teachers. They have a short attention span and their actions are without direction, focus, or object. Their restlessness and impulsiveness disrupt discipline in the home and in the classroom. These children are often regarded as spoiled, ill-mannered, strange, or uncoordinated. They are in constant motion; have few friends; and exhibit temper tantrums, persistent sleep problems, learning problems, and aggressiveness.

These children frequently share two problems, both of which are developmental: social and occasionally physical immaturity and the inability to select discriminately from the stimuli in their environment.

They are not brain-damaged or psychotic. They do not possess an overt neurological syndrome, deafness, visual disability, or mental retardation. Their hyperactivity (always present in one degree or another in the hyperkinetic syndrome) should be viewed from a developmental frame of reference, i.e., the toddler is more restless and distractible than the school-age child, and the younger child is more distractible than the adolescent.

Unfortunately, the medical literature and lay press use the terms *hyperactive* and *hyperkinetic* interchangeably. In my opinion, they are not the same.

The problem which arises in using the terms *hyperactive* and *hyperkinetic* interchangeably is more than semantic. For instance, frustrated adults reacting to a child who does not meet their standards can easily exaggerate the significance of the child's occasional inattention or restlessness and label the youngster hyperkinetic.

A January 1971 HEW report on hyperkinesis says "the normal ebullience of childhood, however, should not be confused with the very special problems of the child with hyperkinetic behavior disorders." The report gives the following definition: "There is no known single cause or simple answer for such problems. The major symptoms are an increase of purposeless physical activity and a significantly impaired span of focused attention. The inability to control physical motion and attention may generate other consequences, such as disturbed moods and behavior within the home, at play with peers, and in the schoolroom."

This report further emphasizes the importance of the quality of hyperactivity. Children in whom the diagnosis is obvious are described as acting as if they possess an "inner tornado." The media have gone further, it seems to me, and have created a misleading stereotype of these children. They are depicted as the ones who destroy the supermarket, who set fire to sister's hair, the ones with clenched fists and bared teeth who seem to appear more animal than human.

It is true that some hyperkinetic children have signs of structural damage to their nervous system but most do not, and this point is very important.

I would describe hyperkinesis as a treatable illness characterized by involuntary behavior and/or learning problems in a child whose brain maturation is delayed. The history of the problem and the obvious tendency for a number of children identified as hyperkinetic to improve as they grow older supports this definition. An unknown number of children who have hyperkinesis and go untreated may certainly outgrow the syndrome without apparent sequelae.

The hyperkinetic child's inabil-

Teachers can be important partners in identifying hyperkinetic children and in carrying out the proper therapy with them.

ity to control his or her span of concentration for a period of time long enough to assimilate and utilize incoming data results in uncontrolled emotional outbursts and emotional highs and lows. This leads to poor relationships with parents, teachers, and peers.

Identifying hyperkinetic children presents a perplexing problem. There is no way to identify and separate the children who would "naturally" outgrow the disability even if untreated from the ones who would develop serious emotional and learning deficits as a result of being untreated.

However, I would like to make several statements, based on my knowledge of and experience with hyperkinesis.

1. All hyperkinetic children are hyperactive.
2. All hyperactive children are not hyperkinetic.
3. All learning or behavior problems are not the result of hyperkinesis.
4. About 75 percent of hyperkinetic children do have a learning problem as a direct or indirect result of the condition. This is probably related directly to the intensity of either of the two (i.e., the child with a behavior problem can have a learning problem, which can lead to a greater behavior problem, which can similarly lead to a greater learning problem, etc.).
5. Learning disorders probably constitute the single most serious disability of childhood and have the greatest socioeconomic impact in adult life.
6. A youngster does not suddenly, at age six, become hyperkinetic. The signs are present very early in the child's life.

Medication prescribed by a qualified physician is valuable in the overall care of children with hyperkinesis because it reduces their excitability and impulsivity and increases their attention span and concentration. Specific stimulants can help these children improve their self-control and their relationships with those around them.

Many articles that have appeared in the nonprofessional press and even in many professional publications appear to have missed the object of drug treatment. The primary object of medication is not to calm these children. Rather it is to improve the functioning of their brain so that they can select from their environment the stimuli that will allow them to act appropriately in a situation. There are several well-documented studies which point out that the symptoms of hyperkinesis can be markedly improved by the judicious use of medications, especially methylphenidate.

Several researchers have clearly shown that not only are children on such medication less hyperactive, less belligerent, and more able to follow directions, but their attention span is improved and their distractibility is decreased. In addition, their coordination also improves if that was poor. There is, indeed, often a striking and at times almost unbelievable improvement in both the academic performance and the behavior of the children, which results in higher self-esteem and increased acceptance by their teachers and peers.

A case history will illustrate my point. When E. G., a six-and-a-half-year-old boy, became my patient, he was about to be expelled from school for kicking his classmates and the teacher. He was a bright child but was doing poorly in his schoolwork. He was hard to reason with at home, and he wanted to be the center of attention at all times. His peers avoided him whenever possible.

He was the product of a full-term uncomplicated pregnancy and was adopted by his parents at the age of three-and-a-half months. He had no history of serious trauma or serious illness, and his developmental milestones were normal.

I had his parents and teacher fill out evaluation forms about his behavior. On the school evaluation one, the teacher checked the column headed with one of the following, *never, almost never, sometimes, almost always,* or *always,* for statements such as "Finds it hard to play with peers" and "Reacts adversely to changes in routine." (The teacher's evaluation form has proved successful in informing teachers as well as in assessing the child's behavior.) On their form, the parents circled *yes* or *no* for statements such as "Short attention span," "Overly sensitive," "Panics easily," and "Quick-tempered."

After examination of the patient and the forms and after consultation with the parents, I prescribed Ritalin for E. G. The parents reported that after one week on the drug, his behavior had improved. A second teacher evaluation indi-

cated great improvement in E. G.'s behavior.

After several months on Ritalin, he is a changed child—and all for the better, according to parents and teacher. His ability to make and maintain friends appears to be greatly improved and his ability to concentrate on schoolwork has also.

Generally speaking, when I prescribe Ritalin for a child, I begin with a very low dosage for five days of the first week. This enables parents and teachers to see differences in the child's behavior on and off the medication. Then I increase the dosage over the next two weeks.

I have contact with the parents at the end of each of these three weeks and then again at the end of six and 12 weeks. I advise parents that there may be several dosage changes until the most effective one is found.

The suggestion that the administration of this medication can lay the groundwork for future physical drug addiction is unfounded, in my opinion. As a matter of fact, many of these children resent the idea of having to take medication in order to function within their environment in an appropriate manner.

I believe that untreated youngsters who have had years of frustrating humiliation in the classroom and at home are much more likely candidates for addiction than are hyperactive children whose use of a drug has helped their self-control and ability to function in their environment.

Parents and teachers can, and must, be helped to view hyperkinesis as a treatable condition and to recognize that delayed brain maturation is not only an important but a common contributing factor to this syndrome. Then they will be more able to be understanding and patient with the hyperkinetic child.

Teachers and parents should give these children clear instructions and should avoid rigid scheduling of activities of fixed length. Their activities should be brief and should not exceed their capability for sustained attention.

When teachers detect early signs of an impending temper tantrum, they should take immediate steps to remove the child from the situation and offer an alternative distraction which could avoid the tantrum. However, once an explosion has occurred, there is nothing to do but wait it out, making sure that the child does not harm himself or herself or tyrannize others. This is about the same advice I would offer a parent or teacher dealing with a "normal" child who was having this type of behavior problem.

Teachers can be important partners in identifying hyperkinetic children and in carrying out the proper therapy with them—but only if they understand the problem and are willing to cooperate with doctor and parents. Teachers and doctor should focus on the ultimate goal: a child who is capable of functioning at his or her highest potential for learning within the classroom environment.

Teachers must be aware of their own abilities and limitations in dealing with the hyperkinetic child. Recognition of these abilities and limitations can only be helpful to teacher, child, and class.

If the hyperkinetic child gives any indication of having or developing a mental illness, the mental health profession should enter in the treatment. I often find a need for consultation from psychologists and psychiatrists in cases in which children are past the age of seven-and-a-half or eight, because they and their parents have had a greater chance of having suffered moderate to severe emotional sequelae as a result of the primary problem.

The mental health professional who becomes involved in such a case should have proper facilities for testing, evaluating, and treating. The treatment might involve medication, educational therapy, counseling by the child's doctor, family counseling by a mental health professional, or psychiatric counseling—any of these alone or in combinations, as appropriate.

One final point: If we, as teachers and physicians, can accept the fact that hyperkinetic children react to their environment in their own special way—*involuntarily*—we can understand and therefore we can help. □

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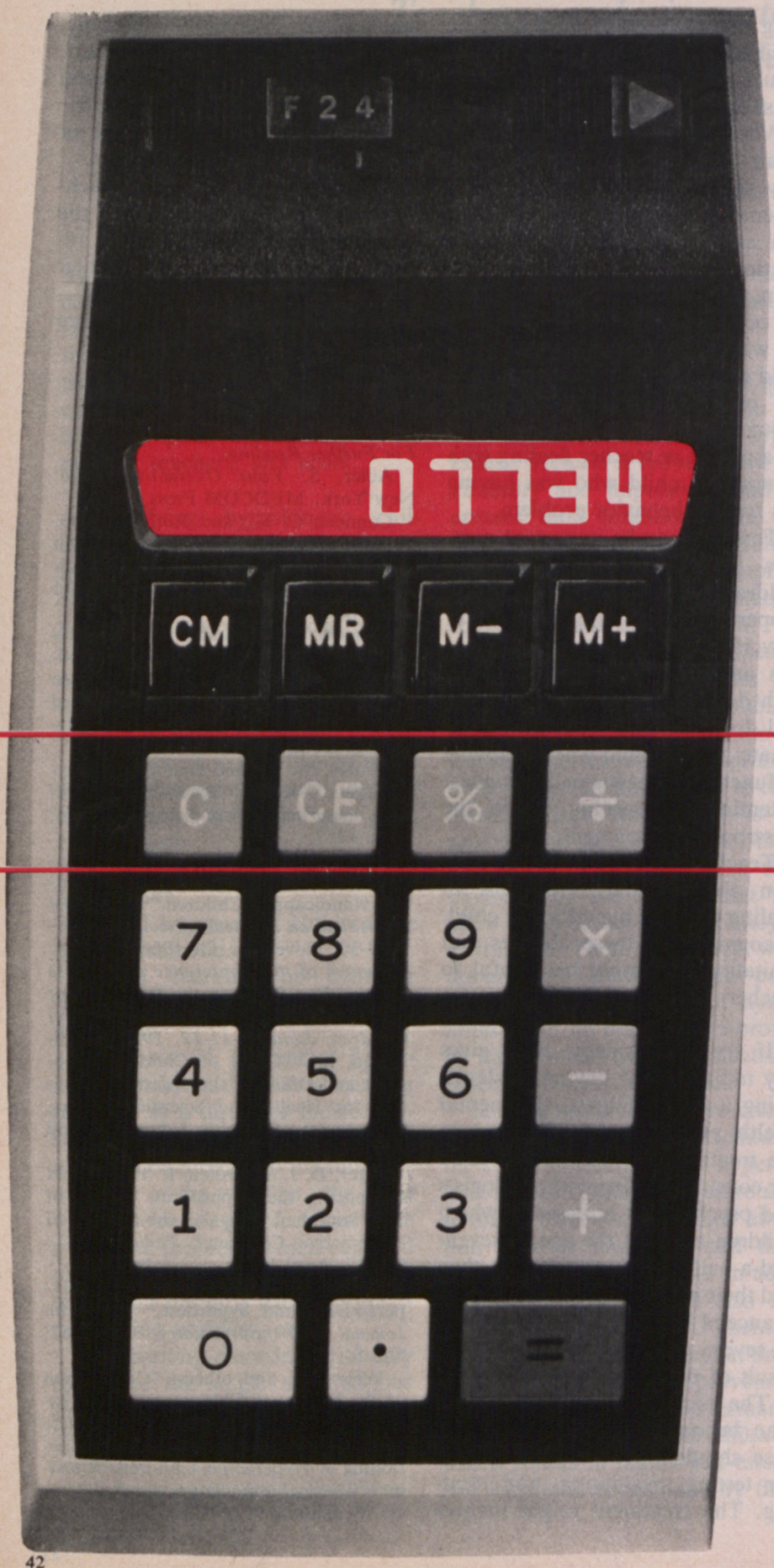

Calculators in

By E. GLENADINE GIBB
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A recent market research survey reports a predicted rise in the sale of minicalculators from 13 million in 1973 to 35 million in 1975 to 77 million in 1980. The low price and high reliability of these pocket calculators have increased their popularity for personal as well as for professional use.

Many teachers and school administrators find themselves faced with decisions concerning the use of calculators in the classroom as students bring them to school. Among the questions asked are:

- Should we permit use of calculators in the classroom?
- Can they be used effectively without compromising the development of mathematical understandings and competencies?
- What changes can be expected, if any, in the objectives of mathematics instruction and the school mathematics program if calculators are used in classrooms?
- What criteria should be used in buying calculators for school use?
- How can they be made available to all students in an equitable fashion?

Many schools are already making use of minicalculators in a variety of ways in the classroom. The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics supports the position that hand-held calculators can be effectively and creatively used as instructional aids in stimulating students' thinking. There is not, however, a unified position among

teachers with respect to the benefits gained or the problems created by the use of minicalculators.

The research to date on the educational benefits of using them in the classroom is inconclusive, although there is some evidence that students who use them are more motivated and exhibit higher achievement than those who do not. Subjective observations, however, support use of these instruments in schools.

Let us consider the minicalculator as an instructional device.

For students in the lower elementary grades who have not developed a concept of numbers, a system for naming numbers, and an understanding of the meaning and processes of basic mathematical operations, the mechanics of pushing keys and reading what appears in the display on a calculator may only provide practice in numeral recognition skills. There is evidence, however, that the calculator can help the learning and thinking of students in the upper elementary and secondary schools.

the Classroom

Also, students in upper elementary schools and in junior and senior high schools enjoy using minicalculators. This, in turn, may stimulate their interest in learning in general and in learning mathematics in particular. This is especially true for those who have had unsuccessful experiences in mathematics.

Students can get excited, however, about novelty and machines. In such cases, one might then predict that when the novelty wears off, their interest will wane.

Teachers may ask students to use calculators in the following ways:

Checking answers. Students work a problem on paper and then with the calculator. If the calculator and its user disagree, who is correct? Is the machine or the operator malfunctioning? The analysis of "who is right" provides for more thoughtful analysis of a problem than checking responses in an answer book. In rechecking a computation, the calculator is also helpful in checking partial steps in the computation.

Debugging the problem. Students consider a multiplication problem such as $345 \times 283 =$ _____. By finding 5×283, 40×283, and 300×283, they can check partial products. Or students can add long lists of figures by getting the sum of the whole list and by getting the sum of parts of the list and then adding those partial sums together. In a division computation, students can check products and subtractions. They can verify results by using the $\times$ key.

Checking knowledge of basic facts in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. Learners can engage in self-regulated exercises such as "racing" the calculator to see if they can name the answer before it appears on the display as they press the appropriate key. (Some teachers report that students who use minicalculators learn basic multiplication facts more quickly than their predecessors who used other devices.)

Assessing insight. After students complete a division computation, say, $322 \div 23$, they can solve the same problem on their calculators using the $-$ key. From 322 they can make continuous subtractions of 23 14 times. Without using the $\times$ key, students can find the product of 8×384 simply by adding 384 eight times.

Working with decimals. To use the calculator in working with fractions, it is often necessary to use the decimal representation of rational numbers instead of their usual fractional representation. By dividing the numerator by the denominator (i.e., by converting fractions to decimals), students can easily locate the rational numbers 3/4, 5/6, 2/3, and 7/8 on the number line.

Exploring number theory. After discussing ratios and the concept of identifying the basic fraction for a rational number, students can use their calculators to identify common factors for numerators and denominators. Finding the prime factorization of a large number, such as 1,067,430, can deepen students' understanding of the number theory.

Making the calculator "speak." With an appropriate set of calculations, students can form words from the following eight letters: B, E, G, H, I, L, O, S. They may use the same letter more than once.

Then they may create calculations that result in a display where B = 8, E = 3, G = 6, H = 4, I = 1, L = 7, 0 = 0, S = 5. For example, to fail to win:

$(700 \times 5) + 7 =$ _____.

To find the solution, students complete the computation and then turn the calculator upside down.

Making patterns. Students can generate number patterns with a calculator that they would not do otherwise because of the tedious computation. For example:

$1 \times 1 =$ ____
$11 \times 11 =$ ____
$111 \times 111 =$ ____

Now students guess:

$1111 \times 1111 =$ ____
$11111 \times 11111 =$ ____
$111111 \times 111111 =$ ____

Solving problems. Students can solve problems involving computations that would be tedious without the use of a minicalculator. For example, they can work the following:

- Find the unit price of various sized containers of a product and then compare the values.
- Determine how many seconds there are in a year.
- Using the measurements of at least 10 different circles, divide the circumference of each by its diameter and record the quotients. (In this manner, the value of pi is clear-

ly illustrated to students.)

- Discover how many years it would take to double an investment at a rate of 7 ½ percent compounded annually, quarterly, and daily.

How may the use of calculators in the classroom change mathematics programs? With many calculators displaying solutions in decimal notation, we can expect the study of rational numbers, expressed as decimals, to appear earlier in the curriculum than has been customary. This change has already been anticipated with the projected shift to the metric system.

No doubt there will be a change in what and how we teach computation. Skills in estimating and error-checking will receive greater emphasis because minicalculators make it possible to receive immediate feedback of answers to complex calculations. At the same time, extensive use of minicalculators makes it more essential than before for students to know in what "ballpark" their answers should lie.

There will be greater emphasis on problem solving, especially problems from the real world for which finding solutions was previously prohibitive because of the need for tedious and laborious computation.

Many kinds of calculators are available. In making a decision to select suitable ones for classroom use, the purchaser should consider how they are to be used and the amount budgeted to buy them.

For beginners, buyers should buy calculators that have—

- An easy-to-read display with the same style numerals as those in textbooks
- A display of at least six or preferably eight digits
- Easily accessible spring-loaded click keys
- Four functions: +, −, ×, ÷
- Floating decimal
- Two clearing keys (clear entry and clear)
- No key with dual purpose
- Rechargeable unit or AC adapter
- Algebraic logic.

As with other learning devices in the classroom, the calculators must be durable. The buyer should get them from a reliable company that gives a warranty on them and that can either repair them when they are damaged or can recommend another place where they can be repaired.

A few hundred dollars can buy a fair number of machines that can be shared by students and classes. It is not necessary that all students have a calculator at all times for the machines to be used effectively in the classroom. It is advisable, however, to have no more than two students using one at a time. Any higher ratio of students to calculator leads to student frustration, confusion, and dislike for the machine unless teachers develop teaming and sharing techniques.

In exploring the potential of calculators as a teaching device, teachers might start by using a dozen in class one or two days a week.

Like any other teaching aid, the calculator can create more problems than it can solve if it is misused. Although it will reduce the need for pencil-paper skills, it is not a substitute for them. Also, teachers cannot assume that just the introduction of a minicalculator in the classroom will necessarily motivate students.

Teachers should also guard against programming each move students make while using calculators. They should let them explore independently, for personal experience plays a great role in the learning process.

To place calculators in the hands of students just for the sake of using them can be disastrous. Students' mathematical capabilities can be enhanced, however, with the associated thinking and comprehension of the work that the calculators are doing for them. Creative use, after understandings have been abstracted, can establish the calculator as a valuable asset in today's mathematics classroom. □

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What About Basic Standards?

There's no evidence of massive erosion,

says **FRED T. WILHELMS**
Former Executive Secretary, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

I retired in 1972. By 1973 I knew that one doesn't just walk off the field after 45 years in the middle of the game. Even if I wasn't playing anymore, I was just as interested in the box scores as ever. The movement toward alternative schools—a growing variety of them—interested me most of all.

For a while these schools were almost all on the "open" side, with enhanced freedom—and responsibility—for the learner. Then, suddenly, "alternative" didn't always mean "open" anymore.

Across the country the demand was rising for *traditional* schooling or *conservative* alternatives. "Back to basics" was a spreading slogan, and a new name, "fundamental school," was growing popular. Our youngsters aren't learning to read and write as well as they used to, the argument ran. The new math has wrecked their computation skills. Academic standards are going down.

I can't help asking, "Are they really that concerned about achievement? Or do they just resent change—any change if it's in a liberal direction—and long for familiar old-fashioned content combined with rigid discipline?"

Still, despite my skepticism and despite the fact that many people are increasingly skeptical about traditional indicators of performance, I decided to take a look at the evidence. I knew in advance that solid comparative data would be scarce. (Maybe they're called "hard data" because they're so hard to find!) Anyway, I didn't care to go all out on a scholarly and definitive study. But even a quick survey showed that there *is* some reason to suspect a slippage in the past decade. Here are a few leading lines of evidence:

- Scores on college entrance tests have been going down steadily since the mid sixties, declining slowly from 1963 to 1968, faster since then with the sharpest drop of all this past year. On the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), the average verbal score has dropped from 478 to 434; the average mathematics score, from 502 to 472. Likewise, on the American College Testing Program's ACT, which has a top score of 36, there has been a 10-year decline between 1964-65 and 1973-74 of one "standard score" for men and 1.5 for women—about one-fifth of a standard deviation.
- In science, the first field covered twice by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), results showed a drop of about two percentage points—the equivalent of about a half-year's normal growth—between 1970 and 1973. The drop crossed age, sex, and economic lines. The only exceptions were among rural and Southeastern region students.
- In the field of reading, *Reading Achievement in the United States: Then and Now*, a massive study published at Indiana University in 1974 by Roger Farr, Jaap Tuinman, and Michael Rowls, reported that "the gradual improvement in reading competency over the four decades prior to 1965 may have lessened or halted; and finally, over the last 10 years there may have been a very slight decline in reading achievement."
- In mathematics, no such current overall study is available, though one is in the works. But it is easy to sense among the math people themselves a fairly widespread feeling that the standard computation skills may have suffered, especially among less able students. Thus, Don Niemann, specialist in mathematics in Nebraska's Department of Education, said, "I shouldn't be at all surprised if our preoccupation with concepts has meant some decline in computation."

Joseph R. Caravella of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics did not disagree with this possibility. He said that some teachers had minimized the teaching of basic skills—especially through the use of drills—although the new math never has said, "Don't use drills." But he pointed out that test results may be deceptive because, particularly in the lower grades, the standard tests include skills "which the kids in modern math pick up easily two or three years later."

James Bonner of the Philadelphia schools agreed, "We emphasize concepts at that stage, and they're testing skills." (Incidentally, Philadelphia has consistently "tried for the best of two worlds," using quite a bit of modern math but sticking to basic skills as well; test scores have been on the rise for several years.)

Without trying to explain away what some may describe as "sobering realities," let's check into those

findings mentioned a bit more.

• There is a consensus that the decline in college entrance scores is real. The College Entrance Examination Board and the Educational Testing Service have studied their tests in a deliberate search for an "explanation," and they report "no erosion of validity"; that is, in their opinion, the tests still predict college performance as well as they ever did. However, Paul Diederich of ETS holds out: "These same 10 years have been the years of zooming college costs. Those very bright boys and girls who used to try for Harvard know now they couldn't afford to go there even if they won a place. They settle for state institutions—and skip the tests." The resulting change in sampling, he implies, might account for part of the decline in average scores.

In addition, there are many students taking these tests who would never even have considered doing so in the past. However, the percentage of minority students taking the SAT has remained constant since 1972, the first year for which data on ethnic status were available.

Despite speculation, the College Board is not prepared to accept the validity of any single explanation for the decline in SAT scores. Sam McCandless, director of the Board's Admissions Testing Program, says, "Much of the evidence available to us about the causes of the decline is suggestive . . .; more research will be required."

• As to the findings in science, I am tempted to do some "explaining" of my own. In the youth movements of the past decade, one prominent feature has been a revulsion against all things technological. For a few years after Sputnik, young people went for the tremendous emphasis on science; then they began moving away from the sciences and toward the humanities and things of the spirit. "Science and technology," they seemed to say very positively, "is not where it's at." The 1970-73 years covered by NAEP's two measurements were at the very height of this shift. This does not make a decline any more palatable in a society which greatly needs scientific-technological insight and skill, but it may very well mean that the problem centers in the priorities of our young people—not in the deterioration in the quality of instructional programs.

• As to the findings in reading, we ought to be just as cautious as the authors of the report. After saying that "over the last 10 years there may have been a very slight decline . . ." they added, "Of all our hesitant interpretations, we feel least certain about [this] last one." This is hardly the stuff to back up any indignant charge that "the kids can't read anymore." In fact, the closing sentences of the report say, "We are now convinced that anyone who says that *he knows* that literacy is decreasing is a very unsure person. Such a person is at best unscholarly and at worst dishonest."

Incidentally, anyone who wishes to use the "very slight decline" as the basis for a back-to-phonics movement—and it is predictable that many will—should hear some of the observations made last June during a panel discussion at the National Institute of Education.

Roger Farr described a pattern of reading scores that he (and other panelists) had found to be common: Scores on reading readiness tests and in the primary grades are going up, while scores in grades 4 through 6 are going down. He pointed out that K-3 instruction in phonics and other word recognition skills has been intensified in recent years. And since the primary level tests emphasize these subskills, kids' scores go up, reflecting successful teaching.

At the upper elementary level, however, where the tests measure reading comprehension, this emphasis on teaching subskills at the primary level may have left kids unprepared for what we normally mean by the word "reading." Farr suggested that perhaps we should be teaching "total reading behaviors" as well as subskills at the primary level. John Draper, then associated with McGraw-Hill's Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills, agreed with him, saying that when a new form of the CTB was developed, data emerged which bear out Farr's theory that there's too much concentration on the "micro aspects of reading."

Note further that this same study showed, beyond cavil, a long, rather steady *improvement* in reading from the 1930's until at least 1965. Guy T. Buswell, long-time leader in reading research, put it to me succinctly, "Our young people are reading far more now than they used to, and they are reading better things."

(Since all the above was written, NAEP has reported a special study it carried out in 1974 for the National Right To Read Effort. The study included questions which also appeared on the NAEP reading assessment of 1971. The study was restricted to 17-year-old students, and it covered only the very basic reading skills essential for functioning in everyday life—reading road signs, maps, advertisements, forms, and reference works. The finding: The performance of 1974 17-year-old students was two percentage points higher than that of 1971 students.)

• Finally, as to math, I have a sure feeling that *if*, in the new math's proper reformist zeal for the big ideas, something was lost in tool skills, the proper corrections can and will be made in short order *by professionals*. In fact, adjustments are already under way. For example, Father Stanley Bezuszka, director of the Boston College Mathematics Institute and one of the original forces in introducing the new math into schools, is working for a math curriculum which rewrites modern math technical terms using everyday language and emphasizing computational skills related to the

child's real world. But Bezuszka denies that he wants any return to "old math." "There's only one math, and that's new math," he contends.

One wonders how great the putative losses in basic competencies may have been, anyway—if there has been a loss. James T. Fey of the University of Maryland, who heads the large-scale study which will report this month (November), was naturally reluctant to discuss findings ahead of time. But he did say, "At least we know there has not been anything like the 'complete disaster' some people talk about."

The highly vocal critics seem to assume that everything has gone to pot, and they reach a long way back to find the good old days. But in Nebraska, Milton W. Beckmann, professor of mathematics education at the University, repeated in 1965-66 a statewide survey of ninth graders which he had made in 1950-51. Testing for 29 basic competencies, he found that *"students at the beginning of the ninth grade in 1965 did as well as those at the end of the ninth grade in 1951."* He further showed that during 1965-66 students taking "modern" algebra gained significantlymore *in basic competencies* than those who took traditional algebra.

Test scores aren't the only evidence that is admissible when we try to size up where we stand. They wouldn't be, even if comparable data for different periods were plentiful. But if we take just the few indicators listed above, what do we see? Is there any evidence of a massive slide-off in the basics? I don't see it. The worst that can be said is that we may have come down a little from the crest of the mid sixties, leaving us still well above any prior time.

All of which tempts me to say—not so facetiously—that if the critics of the schools want to go back to some golden age, they ought to ask us to go back to 1965-66! That seems to have been a vintage year.

What would that mean? It would take us back behind most of the American development of the open school, of course, and that's probably the big change. It would take us back behind a good many other little innovations, too, but I don't believe that any of them affected many schools very much.

More important, so far as our young people are concerned, it would mean going back into almost another world. Do you remember, from 1965, how enthusiastically our brighter youth were engaged in the great national post-Sputnik drive for academic excellence? They looked confidently and with good reason, in those days, toward brilliant careers in science or mathematics or whatnot. There was excitement in the air.

Then things happened on the road to 1975, not all easy to understand: There was the great disillusionment with the war in Vietnam and a massive alienation from the old establishment. There was the formation of the youthful countercultures. Along with it, came revulsion against materialism and against the very careerism which was so high in 1965; a great shift from things of the technology to things of the inner spirit; a driving quest for new life-styles, a new morality, and a new mode of relationships among groups and between individuals.

I suggest that if things have changed in schools, these are the changes that count for most. The changes in school climate, the new respect for student rights, the more open styles of teaching, the new emphasis on the humane have, in fact, been largely a response to human change in our students.

And should we really care to go back behind those changes, painful as some have been? Let's look for a moment at the "trade-offs":

If there has been a temporary falloff of computation skills in math, which we can easily remedy, are we to place no value at all on the great gains in mathematical insight and understanding? If student motivation has waned a bit in the sciences, should we not balance into the equation the enormous strides we are taking in the humanities? If we have to pay something in academic accomplishment—we don't, but suppose we did—for the beneficent effect of open education on human becoming, isn't the growth in personhood worth enormously more than anything we could lose?

I do not mean to be just another defender of the status quo. Obviously, we have tremendous problems to solve. But I believe those problems lie in fitting ourselves to the spirit and needs of our times. I see no sense in a hysterical retreat into old-style formalistic hammering at a few tool skills, coupled with an authoritarian rigidity of discipline. The problems don't lie on that line, and neither do the solutions.

As a matter of fact, I don't believe many parents want that retreat, either. When the Hoover Elementary School in Palo Alto was formed, for example, everyone was very careful to say that it was not to be such a reversion.

To tell the truth, I see no great reason why parents should not be offered a variety of conservative options—along with the more liberal ones—if they want them. There is probably no great risk. Here and there, some groups may go off the deep end, back to the oppressive dullness and occasional callousness which once prevailed. But, by and large, modern administrators and teachers are simply incapable of recreating the old scene. They have learned a freer, more affectionate way of relating to children, and they know too much about teaching and learning.

Besides, teachers have a tremendous underpinning of plain common sense. With that as our guardian, we can afford to experiment freely, in many directions, and let the alternatives make their way in the marketplace of ideas. □

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American Education Standards Are Slipping

says **STEVEN MULLER**
President, The Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland.

Even the founding ideal was never as simple as it sounded. "In a free democracy, every citizen should be an educated man." The argument for the ideal *was* simple and obvious: When the people are sovereign, they must be mentally fit for sovereignty—able to understand and express themselves on the issues before them. But in the days of restricted suffrage, who was a citizen? And how much education was required?

In the second half of the nineteenth century, a second ideal was added. "Every citizen should be free to develop his productive skills to the utmost." Again there was a simple and powerful argument: In a free industrial society, citizens are producers of the common wealth, and they must be able to acquire the skills that will enable them to be as productive as they can and want to be. But at that time, women, Blacks, and many others were still largely excluded from opportunity to advance, regardless of their skills. And skills were not defined, but the assumption was that they could be taught.

These two ideals—education for democratic citizenship and education for economic improvement—together prompted the American society to develop the most comprehensive commitment to mass education in history.

In the course of the century since the late 1860's, free public education became available to every child from kindergarten through the twelfth grade. Opportunities for low-cost postsecondary education were continuously extended until today they, too, are open to virtually every person who seeks them. The aggregate social achievement is impressive: In a population of well over 200 million, literacy is generally taken for granted, generations of immigrants have achieved a common culture, almost every citizen commands productive skills, and upward economic mobility is a hallmark of the society.

Now a turning point has been reached, after two decades of unprecedented activity to eliminate every last vestige of inequity from mass education.

That great goal of wholly equal opportunity is now in sight, though not quite in hand. But at this juncture, the commitment to mass education is being questioned. Its costs are enormous, and there is growing concern that standards of achievement have suffered serious erosion. The questions of costs and standards intertwine. The momentum of the American commitment to mass education appears so great as to override the obstacle of high costs unless the validity of the commitment can be newly challenged.

The charge of erosion of standards represents the greatest new challenge to that historic commitment. Failing standards may be perceived to signify the failure of mass education and may therefore lead to dilution of that commitment, although probably not to its abandonment. Or failing standards may be viewed as a curable flaw, in which case, consequent attempts at the cure will strengthen our historic commitment to mass education.

Which of these two perceptions has greater merit? The answer must

lie in an analysis of the phenomenon of declining standards.

The general public does not see the literature produced within the field of education, and therefore its awareness of declining standards is only marginally based on research or analysis.

Instead, the general public appears to look with quite natural attention to the collegiate undergraduate sector as the most visible —and expensive—upper range of the whole system. There, among some very mixed images, the public sees two or three displeasing ones that seem to become increasingly more pronounced: College and university undergraduates are perceived as less and less literate and less and less able to find good jobs.

Such perceptions easily lead to this catechism: If undergraduates don't know much and some also can't get jobs, there must be something wrong with a whole system that is very expensive. So why not send a whole lot fewer people to college and save everybody's money, especially when there are so many college graduates who are jobless or working at jobs that do not require college preparation?

A public that does not read the technical literature is also likely to pay considerable heed to popularized material that reinforces fads of new public perception, such as Caroline Bird's book, *The Case Against College*. The conclusions drawn by the public (and by the author) are arguable, but the observations that led to them are generally correct.

Why, then, are standards of achievement in education declining? There are at least five fundamental reasons why standards in the modern American system of mass education are extremely difficult to maintain.

The first one is obvious: People have talents as diverse as their personalities, and great numbers of them cannot be educated to the same level. An effort to do so would either mean that the common standard would be set so low as to be within reach of even the least talented, to the disadvantage of those of average talent, let alone the most talented. Or the level would be set too high for the least talented, but also inevitably still too low for the most highly talented.

This dilemma did not emerge as crucial in American education until recently, because a complex mix of schools, colleges, and universities was continuously created to serve recognizably different levels of talent. Also it was openly assumed that it was in the nature of things for levels of talent to be related directly to parental socioeconomic status and—less openly—to race and sex as well. Such assumptions are now regarded as false—and rightly so—but, of course, inequality of human talent persists.

An effort at achieving a common standard has been under way—reinforced by a public never interested in fine distinctions and therefore likely to look at all schools and colleges as essentially the same and by the tendency of all schools and colleges to claim the highest levels of talent.

Far better, indeed necessary, would be frank recognition that different levels of talent will always exist and that mass education requires a variety of institutions openly tuned to very different levels of talent. This, however, flies in the face of American egalitarianism and leads to charges of elitism and meritocracy.

A free society may be possible, but an honest one may not. For the sake of being able to pretend that all young people are equal not only under God and under law but also in talent, the American society may permit very low average standards in mass education.

The second fundamental reason for declining standards involves the fact that the founding ideals of education for citizenship and economic productivity are not wholly congruent and never have been. One can be educated in many of the refinements of civilization without being skilled for specialized employment and—more important—the reverse is true. Again, the inherent tensions here have only recently become sharply visible.

As the society became technologically much more sophisticated, the emphasis on development of skills has become more pronounced in school curriculums. With the advent of mass media in particular, less emphasis was placed on the role of education in providing and maintaining the common cultural values of civilization. As a result, standards of general education were allowed to erode while greater emphasis was placed on vocational preparation. For example, the literacy in grammar or spelling of a computer analyst has come to be regarded as irrelevant.

It is, of course, not difficult to point out that a society of skilled illiterates would soon suffer terrible difficulties in maintaining popular government, that there are values in education that transcend vocational preparation and job placement, and that mass education for the civilized uses of leisure is rapidly becoming a great new challenge and need. But it will be difficult to wean the public from the notion that there must be a calculable additional employment benefit for each year invested in education and then to persuade the public anew that mass education for self-government and civilization has merit on its own.

A third root of lower standards grows from the fact that mass education cannot assume mass motivation. At present, large numbers of children move annually through public school systems without educational motivation. In fact, because laws require their attendance, many young people are hostile to the educational process, regarding

it as a compulsory imposition.

While attendance in postsecondary education is not legally required, family and social pressures, combined with low-cost easy access to higher education, have resulted in attendance at colleges of large numbers of students who are essentially unmotivated.

A major response to the problem of unmotivated students has been the effort to make the classroom experience as entertaining as possible and to place on school and college instructors the burden of instilling and maintaining motivation as well as offering instruction. Laudable as this effort might seem, I believe it has resulted in deteriorating academic and behavioral standards.

Criticism of instructors and classes as boring became commonplace. The response to this criticism involved further relaxation of discipline and added efforts at entertainment. In these difficult circumstances, teachers began to reward feigned or real evidence of student motivation at least as much as educational achievement. The effect on educational standards has been devastating in both schools and colleges.

Lack of motivation may well be the most serious ill besetting the public school system. The only cure is revived recognition that learning cannot be forced on the unmotivated or hostile, that instructors generally are not trained to instill motivation, that the entertainment potential of the instructional process is limited, and that classroom discipline must be restored.

For higher education, where attendance is not legally required, much would be gained if more students deferred entering college until they were fully motivated to seek postsecondary education, presumably as a result of a year or more of employment after they have graduated from secondary school.

As things stand today, the presence in colleges and universities of large numbers of unmotivated students continues to degrade standards of academic achievement, particularly when these students expect to be entertained and rewarded for showing effort rather than for demonstrating competence.

A fourth reason for declining standards, closely related to the matter of deficient motivation, consists of the growing confusion between the right of access to education and what is popularly referred to as a right "to education."

American political and social commitments to mass education have evolved to the point where no citizens should be denied the free and equal right of access to full educational opportunity. This, of course, does not and cannot confer an education on anyone, for the obvious reason that education can only be derived from an individual learning process. Nevertheless, students increasingly claim (with some justice at least in public institutions) that they have a right to *receive* education.

There is growing evidence of a danger that in the public mind a judgment of failure in performance is becoming confused with denial of a right. The impact on standards is obvious if the governing criterion for evaluation and promotion becomes time spent rather than adequate intellectual performance.

The only remedy is renewed public awareness that years spent in educational institutions without individual learning are years wasted and that there is a huge distinction between the right of access and any earned result.

It is not possible to combine meaningful standards of academic achievement with no-fault concepts of education, under which students are held individually blameless if they fail to acquire an education while attending an educational institution even though they make no effort to learn and are incapable of functioning above a low level of intellectual competence.

Fifth, and finally, the maintenance of high standards requires large numbers of instructors of high quality. The availability in sufficient numbers of excellent teachers has been a perennial problem for the public schools, with room for argument as to how well it has been solved over time. Within higher education, the drastic expansion of the 1950's and 60's produced a huge expansion of the professoriate. It must be assumed that this sudden and enormous growth of college and university faculties also inevitably resulted in some dilution of instructional quality. From this perspective, the anticipated decline in undergraduate enrollments, coupled with tighter institutional budgets, at least provides the opportunity to reassess and restore high quality in college and university faculties.

The most obvious conclusion to be drawn from this brutally short inventory of five major reasons for lower standards is that to maintain high standards in the American context of mass education is extremely difficult and that, in my opinion, the effort to do so has eroded at an accelerating pace in recent years.

At the same time, there is no indication that the ideals of an educated and skilled citizenry are less important to a democratic free-enterprise society today than they were in the past. If anything, they are even more significant for a society whose base of popular participation has at last become virtually all-inclusive. Therefore, even the most critical assessment of declining standards represents no argument against the American experiment of unlimited educational opportunity for all the people. Instead, candid awareness of declining standards argues for a new commitment to regaining the highest possible standards with unrelenting determination. □

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A Checklist: Health Care Elsewhere and Here:
What National Programs Pay For

Country	Physicians' bills for home and office calls	Hospital and surgical fees; lab costs	Convalescent and nursing-home care	Prescribed drugs and medicines	Eyeglasses and other medical appliances	Dentists' bills for ordinary dental care	Dental plates and bridges
Austria	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes* ✓	yes ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓
Britain	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓
Canada	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓
Denmark	yes*,2 ✓	yes,1 ✓	yes ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓
France	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓
Italy	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes* ✓	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓
Japan	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓
Netherlands	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓
Soviet Union	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes ✓	yes ✓
Sweden	yes* ✓	yes,1 ✓	yes ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓	yes* ✓
West Germany	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes* ✓	yes ✓	yes ✓	yes ✓
United States	only poor & aged*	only poor & aged*	only poor & aged*	poor only	poor only	poor only	no

* Fees paid in part by patient Source: Committee for National Health Insurance. Copyright CNHI 1975
1 In public hospitals
2 Free to low-income people

The United States is the only industrialized nation in the world that does not have a national system of health care for its people. The Health Security bill is the only national health program that will add a row of yeses for the United States to the above chart.

The Health Security Bill
Why it's needed and what it provides

The Gaps in Private Health Insurance

The total population of the United States on January 1, 1974, was 210 million (with those aged 65 and over nearly 20 million). In the under 65 population:

22%	42 million	had **no** hospital insurance.
22.4%	43.1 million	had **no** surgical insurance.
22.8%	43.3 million	had **no** in-hospital medical expense insurance.
23.1%	44 million	had **no** insurance to cover X-ray and laboratory examinations when not in the hospital.
64.8%	123 million	had **no** insurance for visits to doctor's offices or doctor visits to their homes.
88.6%	168 million	had **no** insurance against dental expenses.
35.4%	67 million	had **no** insurance against the cost of prescribed drugs.
38.5%	73 million	had **no** insurance for private duty nursing.
37.1%	70 million	had **no** insurance for visiting nurse services.
66.6%	127 million	had **no** insurance for nursing-home care.

Source: CNHI. Based on data published in *Social Security Bulletin*, February 1975.

The heat is on Congress this year to enact a comprehensive national health insurance bill—a basic reform of our health care delivery system. This $100 billion enterprise is under increasing attack as being far too costly, wasteful, inefficient, fragmented, and inequitable.

The pressure for reform is coming from teachers, labor unions, church organizations, consumer groups, prominent health professionals, and political leaders, who know that health care in this country—potentially the best in the world—is so expensive and unevenly distributed that millions of Americans do not have full and equal access to it.

Recent studies by the Committee for National Health Insurance, of which NEA is a participating organization, reveal startling statistics about the state of health care in the United States.

- The average American spends one month's pay per year for health care, considerably more than the cost to the average citizen of any other industrialized country.
- The nation has failed to control runaway medical costs. For example, in fiscal 1974, during a period of price controls, total health expenditures in the United States were $104 billion, an increase of 10 percent over FY 1973. Following the lifting of controls in April 1974, health cost inflation accelerated at an annual rate of 18 percent, far exceeding that of general inflation.
- America ranks 19th among major countries of the world in deaths of infants during the first year of life.
- America ranks 21st among the major countries of the world in life expectancy of males and 8th for females—and 28th among industrial countries in the life expectancy of males at age 45.
- We have a shortage of family physicians all over the country, yet a study completed for the American College of Surgeons and the American Surgical Association reports that there is a surplus of at least 30,000 surgeons. Moreover, the distribution of physicians is even more irrational than the distribution by specialty: At least 150 counties have no physicians at all, and some 250 counties have only one doctor available.
- In fiscal 1974, the average health bill for those aged 65 or over was $1,218—almost seven times the average health care expense of people under age 19, according to the Social Security Administration. Even after payments by Medicare and supplementary private policies, the average person over 65 had to pay $415 directly for uncovered medical costs.
- After more than 30 years of trying, private health insurance has failed to come even close to meeting the nation's need for adequate coverage. In fact, private health insurance pays less than one-third of our health costs.
- About 42 million Americans have no hospital insurance at all. Millions of additional working people and their families do not have the security of knowing their hospital and medical costs will be paid during periods of unemployment.

Teachers are no better off than other citizens in terms of employment-related insurance.

Teachers are no better off than other citizens in terms of employment-related health insurance. As recently as 1972-73, 16.3 percent of teachers in school systems with enrollments of 6,000 or more had *no* hospital or medical insurance benefits in their contracts. Only 43.5 percent had hospital and medical insurance paid for in full by their employers.

In most cases, individuals covered by group hospital/medical insurance must assume the full premiums for coverage within a month after benefits are terminated by resignation or loss of employment. To continue this coverage, the unemployed must pay an average of $60 a month—more than most jobless individuals can pay. A federal bill to subsidize extended coverage for the unemployed is bogged down in Congress.

We are clearly at the point where a national consensus must be reached on ways to improve the quality and accessibility of health care and stop skyrocketing costs. NEA, through its Representative Assembly, has urged Congress to enact comprehensive national health insurance legislation (see box).

The only proposal before Congress that meets the NEA criteria of universality, comprehensiveness, and equity is the Health Security Bill introduced in the 94th Congress by Senator Edward M. Kennedy (D-Mass.) as S 3 and Representative James C. Corman (D-Calif.) as HR 21. As we go to press, more than 100 members of the House and 20 senators have cosponsored Health Security. A summary of the bill's provisions appears below.

Purpose. Health Security aims to provide comprehensive health care for everyone in the United States and to effect major improvements in the organization, financing, and providing of health care.

Eligibility. Everyone living in the United States, regardless of age or

(Continued on page 58)

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income, would be eligible for all Health Security benefits.

Benefits. Health Security would pay for nearly all personal health care services, with no deductibles, no coinsurance, no cutoff dates, and no consideration of age or income.

Coverage would include full physicians' services, inpatient and outpatient hospital services, optometry and podiatry services, and medical devices and appliances. It would cover, at the outset, dental care for children up to age 15 and eventually the entire population. And, with limitations, psychiatric services, nursing home care, and drugs would be covered. Health Security would establish large pilot projects to determine the feasibility of home maintenance care for the chronically ill or disabled.

Programs Affected. Health Security would supersede and replace Medicare, most of Medicaid, and some 19 other governmental programs which provide personal health services. The program would not affect veterans hospitals and the CHAMPUS program for military personnel, their dependents, and retirees.

Financing. The program would be administered from a Health Security Trust Fund, half of which would be derived from payroll taxes, the balance from general revenues. The present Medicare taxes and monthly charges would be replaced by a 5 percent tax on the first $21,500 of individual income, a 2.5 percent tax on the first $21,500 of self-employment income, and a 3.5 percent tax on employer payrolls.

Administration. Overall Health Security policy and regulation would be carried out by a five-member full-time Health Security Board appointed by the President with the advice and consent of the Senate, and under the supervision and direction of the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. A 21-member Advisory Council, with a majority of consumer representatives, would assist in planning and formulating policy.

Ten regional Health Security offices would be established within the HEW regions, and approximately 100 health service areas would be set up on the basis of health service organization and patient flow. Local Health Security offices would assist patients and providers and serve an ombudsman function by investigating complaints about the operation of the program.

States would participate in planning, training, coordination for quality controls and manpower increases, utilization review, and inspection of providers. To improve the supply and distribution of health personnel and facilities and the organization of health services, the Health Security Board would work with state comprehensive health-planning agencies and with regional medical programs.

Cost and Quality Controls. Health Security would establish a Quality Control Commission to develop national standards for participating professional and institutional providers, regulation of major surgery and certain other specialist services, national licensure standards, and requirements for continuing education.

Payments to Providers. Physicians, dentists, hospitals, nursing homes, and other health care providers would be paid in full directly from the Health Security Trust Fund. The patient could not be charged more.

Budget Procedures. The total of payroll taxes and government matching funds would be available to pay for personal health services in each fiscal year. Initially, the Health Security Board would look to the latest expenditure figures available before the program starts, making appropriate adjustments among the regions for figures higher or lower than the average. After that, the allocation among regions would be guided by actual expenditures and estimates of what was needed to meet the program's obligations and objectives.

Resources Development Fund. To improve the providing of health care, a Resources Development Fund would be established to support innovative health programs, particularly in manpower, education, training, and group practice development.

Incentives. Health Security would have financial, professional, and other incentives to move the health care delivery system toward organized arrangements for patient care, such as health maintenance organizations and other prepaid group practice plans or professional foundations. It would also establish programs for preventive care, early diagnosis of illness, and medical rehabilitation.

The Health Security program does not envisage a national health service in which the government owns the facilities, employs the personnel, and manages all the finances of the health care system. Under the program, the funds made available would finance and budget the essential costs of good health care for all Americans. These funds would also build a new capacity to bring adequate, efficient, and reliable health care to all.

—NEA Government Relations.

NEA Policy: In 1974, the NEA Representative Assembly adopted the following policy in the Association's Legislative Program for the 94th Congress:

The NEA supports federal legislation to provide comprehensive coverage of hospitalization charges, physicians' services and fees, and prescription drug expenses to all persons, regardless of age or income, who are citizens or residents of the United States.

This policy was reaffirmed by the Representative Assembly in July 1975 at the NEA Convention in Los Angeles.

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How To Teach Without Screaming

By JANE CALIFF
Substitute Teacher, New York City Schools; Consultant, Council on Interracial Books for Children, New York City; Former Elementary School Teacher.

I had been teaching only about two months when one of my third grade pupils approached me and asked, "Is this your first year of teaching?"

Unwilling to admit that I was completely green, I replied, "Not really; last year I taught a class together with another teacher."

"Well," he concluded, "you're on your own now, aren't you?"

And indeed most teachers are, for in many schools there is little serious communication among teachers on teaching techniques, handling discipline, or evaluating solutions to common problems. As situations arise which the teacher cannot deal with, tensions intensify and a serious barrier develops between pupils and teacher.

My early experiences as a teacher were no exception. I made many mistakes, but in the process discovered positive methods which helped create a feeling of friendship and concern not only between the pupils and myself but among my pupils as well.

In this article, I will describe specific situations involving various kinds of pupils and how I learned to resolve them in a positive manner, frequently with the help of the children themselves.

Essentially, I found that by respecting the children, being sincerely interested in their welfare, soliciting their advice and help in difficult situations, and taking events as they occurred in a composed manner, I could foster a positive atmosphere in which the children came to care for one another and in which we were all happier and much more at ease. In such an environment, learning and discussion become possible and enjoyable, and the teacher is able to become a real human being.

Developing this kind of classroom environment takes much time and patience. It is more difficult at first than laying down authoritarian rules. But if teachers can overcome this strong tendency to deal with problems in a dictatorial manner and begin to perceive their pupils as fellow human beings with a basic need for respect and affection, the time and patience required to achieve this change in attitude will result in a truly rewarding, harmonious environment.

The Attention-Seeker. Many unhappy, neglected children, desperate for recognition, employ all kinds of attention-getting devices which can drive a teacher up the wall.

George was one of these disruptive children. His file described him as "very hostile and difficult to control," and he lost no time in living up to that description. He was a bright child, but school, for some reason, completely turned him off.

Unable to read, spell, or do arithmetic, he had to prove himself somehow, and this he attempted to do by annoying other children—ripping their papers, getting into fights, walking around the room, bouncing a ball, and falling off his chair. He seemed to thoroughly enjoy his role in the spotlight, and my shouting "Stop that! Sit down!" only encouraged his behavior.

In frustration, I finally hit on the idea of enlisting the aid of the class to cope with the situation. So one day, while George was out of the room, I frankly put the problem to the other boys and girls: "I think George is basically a nice boy, but he has problems. Do you know what they are?" They certainly did. "He bothers people." "He walks around the room all the time." "He hardly ever does any work."

After the problem had been spelled out, I asked what we could do to help him. The pupils eagerly made suggestions. "We could help him with his work." "When he bothers us, we could ignore him." "We could tell him to go back to his seat."

I complimented them on their suggestions. "Let's see," I said, "how many people there are in this room who will try to help George instead of arguing with him." With the problem posed this way, the children were anxious to show what they could do and eagerly awaited George's return.

Soon after rejoining the class, George leaned over Juan's shoulder and said, "Man, what's happening?"

Juan replied, "Go back to your seat, George. I am trying to do my work."

"Juan is working very well," I immediately informed the class, ignoring George.

I could see that the other children were waiting for an opportunity to prove themselves too—and they did in a similar manner. When George suddenly began swinging on the closet door, no one paid any

attention. Thoroughly perplexed by his failure to provoke anyone, he soon drifted back to his seat.

In addition to enlisting the help of the other children, I built up George's ego by complimenting him whenever possible on his work or improved behavior. I also made an agreement with him that I would send a note to his mother when he was good and when he tried to do his work. Under this new regime, his behavior improved markedly.

During home visits, George's mother told me that I was the first teacher to say anything positive about her son and that her relationship with George was improving.

The Outcast. Altagracia, nine years old, was a shy girl and very frightened. She had recently come from the Dominican Republic and knew very little English. I had enlisted the help of the other children and soon her English improved greatly. But all was not well, as I learned from her mother some weeks later. Altagracia, she told me, hated school and cried almost every day. Investigation revealed that she had no friends and that two boys in the class were writing nasty notes to her and harassing her to the point where she could hardly pay attention in class. I spoke to the boys but realized that more had to be done.

I recalled that during a visit to her home I had seen her preparing a meal for her entire family of eight. So I told the children that Altagracia was a good cook and that I happened to know she could prepare delicious chicken and rice, a wonderful soup, and many other dishes. A general "Ooh!" arose from all sides, and I concluded by saying that perhaps she would cook something for us some day.

Altagracia was pleased with the attention she was getting, and one morning as she and I had planned, she appeared with all the ingredients for fixing Spanish rice. Everyone was excited. We scouted up two hot plates, a pot, spoons, and paper plates from the cafeteria. Altagracia demonstrated how to prepare the rice, and we returned to our classwork while it was cooking.

Finally, the rice was done—perfectly! Everyone got a plate of the tasty rice concoction. Our guests, the principal and the assistant principal, later came by to tell us how much they enjoyed the dish. Altagracia's prestige rose, and the children gained a new respect for her.

The New Arrival. It is easy, because of all the things a teacher has to do, to ignore new arrivals. You find them a seat, give them some books and a hook for their coat, find out what level they have reached in reading and math, and place them accordingly. Then they are forgotten if they are the quiet kind, or they soon become a problem as they attempt to get attention and recognition.

I was sometimes guilty of this kind of neglect, but my attitude changed when my third grade classroom door opened one day and the principal brought in a little boy named José, newly arrived from Puerto Rico. As his mother stood by timidly, apparently fearful of how her son would fit into this strange environment, I realized that something special must be done to help him—and other new children—adjust and feel at home.

I introduced José to the class and explained that he spoke Spanish fluently but didn't know one word of English. "Can you imagine yourself," I exclaimed, "sitting all day in a class listening to words that have no meaning?"

I further pointed out that our new classmate José had no friends at all. A voice from the rear shouted, "Now he do," and when I asked who else would like to be José's friend, many hands shot up. I encouraged the children to help José learn English and suggested several ways they could do this. Soon they were telling me what they had taught him—at lunchtime, on the playground, after school—and I would praise their efforts before the entire class. In addition, José taught us Spanish words, and we made a chart comparing Spanish and English words. Thus José was immediately accepted as part of the group, and the cooperative atmosphere I was trying to create was strengthened.

The Frustrated Child. The reactions of children to a frustrating situation can range from violence to complete passivity, and frequently the teacher, faced with such diverse reactions, is at a loss to know what course to pursue.

Henry wasn't satisfied with his writing, ripped up his paper, threw it on the floor, and refused to do any more work. He was eight years old, a foster child, and required a lot of attention and encouragement. When I asked him to pick up his paper, he refused. So I asked the class, "Who would like to help Henry pick up his paper and put it back together?" Susan volunteered, and, sure enough, bolstered by my moral support and the offer of help from a classmate, Henry picked up his paper and pieced it together.

I said that we all make mistakes and suggested that instead of erasing so hard that his paper tore he could just cross out a word or two. We agreed that the next time he felt like throwing his paper away, he would show it to me, and together we would determine whether it was salvageable. It worked! He made many trips to my desk at first, worried about his mistakes, but gradually his confidence grew.

"Let's do it together" are magic words that frequently soothe a frustrated child. The task then doesn't seem so formidable, and often the rebellious child will readily cooperate.

With this in mind, I encourage children to help one another. Of course, it doesn't always work, as when one child claimed her class-

mate-teacher had called her "stupid." In that case I had a talk with both parties and decided to change the instructor. The offending pupil-teacher was given another chance and another partner to work with. I always keep careful track of who is teaching whom, and when there is a successful relationship going and progress is being made, I mention this to the class.

It is a good idea, however, to be sure that no child is always on the receiving end. Attempts must be made to discover something every boy and girl can demonstrate to the other children or a way they can help another pupil.

Many teachers stress the competitive aspect of schoolwork. For example: "Joan keeps getting 100 percent on spelling tests. How about the rest of you?" Thus, Joan's star keeps rising while other children stand on the sidelines, frustrated, wondering why they can't get themselves together enough to get 100 percent too. A better approach is to say: "Joan has been doing very well, and I'm *sure* everyone else can do much better too. Even if you get one extra word right next week, that will be fine. In the next test we will see who is trying to improve." Then Joan is given a small group of poor spellers to work with.

In this way, the children are encouraged to feel responsible for one another. The good pupils are not continuously getting all the glory while the poorer ones bring up the rear, their feeling of inferiority constantly reinforced. Everyone is given recognition because there is *always* something good to say about each child. The emphasis should not be on grades or comparing one child's work with that of another but on how the child has done relative to his or her past performance.

The Fighter. "Teacher! Bob and Henry fighting."

Sooner or later this cry reaches the teacher's ears. The usual response is to pull the combatants apart and lecture them on the evils of fighting and the virtues of talking things over. As a beginning teacher, I soon learned that in such an explosive situation neither child listens, and the less said the better.

I began taking a differing tack. First, I tried to maintain my cool even when the fight was violent, realizing that it would only make matters worse for me to get excited too. If necessary, I would try to pull the combatants apart.

Once the struggling and shouting subsided, I'd attempt to find out the reason for the fracas. Usually the picture was cloudy, so I would say, "It's obvious that for the present you two can't get along. So I don't want you to talk to each other. Bob, go to your seat, and, Henry, we'll change yours so that you can be as far apart as possible."

Later, after things had cooled down and they could be more objective about the matter, I would talk to the two children, together or separately, depending on the situation. We would discuss what had happened and how it could have been prevented.

Some teachers become so distraught when faced with the often nerve-racking task of administering discipline that they lose their self-control and lash out at the offenders. Such a reaction can spell a teacher's doom, for the children who were fighting or creating the disturbance will conclude that they are all in the same boat, and it's the teacher who is the enemy.

The Victim of Racism. "Teacher! Teacher! She call me black!" cried Rino in anger and outrage. Recently arrived from Haiti, he spoke very little English. As the other children listened, I told him that he *was* black, that the people of the world are different colors, and that most of the world's peoples are black, brown, or tan. We compared our arms and saw that we had in our classroom almost every shade from light to dark.

Then I showed the children the vase of many-colored flowers we had in our room and compared their variety of size, color, and shape with those of people. We decided to take a picture of the bouquet with the children's hands all around. I stood on a chair to take a picture of this from above. The result was a beautiful slide, which we projected on a screen. An enlarged print was made as well for a bulletin board display. The whole episode seemed to make Rino more confident.

This lesson was not only for Rino and my other black students but for the white children in the class as well. It was only a first step, however, because racial prejudice is more than a matter of skin color.

Later in the year, we studied aspects of black history and culture, which further helped to improve human relations in the class.

Even in classrooms where teachers are faced with serious behavior problems, a genuine liking for the pupils, patience, understanding, perseverance, and a knowledge of positive approaches to handling problems can work wonders. If teachers also listen carefully to the pupils and show respect for the thoughts and feelings they express, it will be possible to develop an environment where real communication and learning are possible. □

"History has a sneaky way of getting ahead of me."

Supreme Court Acts on Sectarian Aid

BY HUGH WAMBLE

Professor of Church History, Midwestern Baptist Theological Seminary, Kansas City, Missouri; President, Missouri Coalition for Public Education and Religious Liberty.

In *Meek v. Pittinger*, decided May 19, 1975, the U.S. Supreme Court declared unconstitutional Pennsylvania's third major attempt to provide substantial public aid to nonpublic schools, most of which are church-related. The Court disallowed direct loans of instructional material (books, periodicals, pamphlets, musical scores, maps, charts, etc.) and equipment (projectors, recorders, etc.) to church-related elementary and secondary schools and the sending of public school personnel into such schools to provide auxiliary services (guidance, counseling and testing, psychological, remedial, therapeutic, and other personnel services).

The Court said that its three criteria in this case—secular legislative purpose, primary effect that neither advances nor inhibits religion, and avoidance of excessive government entanglement with religion—are only guidelines, not precise limits. The Establishment Clause of the First Amendment protects against three "evils": government's sponsorship of religion, its financial support for religion, and its active involvement in religious activities.

Quoting *Everson* (1947), the Court said, "No tax in any amount, large or small, can be levied to support any religious activities or institutions, whatever they may be called or whatever form they may adopt to teach or practice religion."

Of the nonpublic schools in question, more than 75 percent are church-related or religiously affiliated, the Court noted. The purpose of many of them "is to provide an integrated secular and religious education," and "the teaching process is, to a large extent, devoted to the inculcation of religious values and beliefs." The Court observed, "It would simply ignore reality to attempt to separate" secular from religious education in such an environment. Thus, direct loans of materials and equipment to these schools fail the primary effect test.

As to auxiliary services, the Court said that government cannot rely entirely "on the good faith and professionalism of the [public schools'] secular teachers and counselors functioning in church-related schools" to avoid aid to religion. "Whether the subject is 'remedial reading,' 'advanced reading,' or simply 'reading,' a teacher remains a teacher, and the danger that religious doctrine will become intertwined with secular instruction persists." To prevent this, government would have to engage in continuing surveillance in religion-oriented schools. But such action fails the nonentanglement test.

Only one form of aid survived challenge in *Meek*—the loan of secular textbooks to students in church-related schools. But only because the books are secular. The loan is to students, and any public aid is to students, not to schools. However, a state constitution may prohibit even this aid (*Paster v. Tussey*, cert. denied by the U.S. Supreme Court, January 13, 1975).

Many federal programs under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA) are similar to programs knocked down in *Meek*. Any difference between state funds (as in *Meek*) and in federal funds (as in *ESEA*) is constitutionally inconsequential, it would seem; both are public funds.

The logic of *Meek* would seem to be fatal to lending federally financed materials and equipment to, and sending ESEA teachers into, church-related schools. On August 14, 1975, a federal court in Kansas City said that providing ESEA-Title I teachers to such schools "would be a direct violation of the prohibitions of the First Amendment" (*Barrera v. Wheeler*). This case is being appealed. □

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Convention	Place
National Association of College Admissions Counselors (NACAC)	Atlanta, Ga. Oct. 7-11, 1975
Adult Education Association of the USA	Salt Lake City, Utah Oct. 27-31, 1975
National Association for Public Continuing and Adult Education	Chicago, Ill. Nov. 6-9, 1975
American Vocational Association (AVA)	Anaheim, Calif. Dec. 5-10, 1975
National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP)	Washington, D.C. Feb. 13-18, 1976
American Association of School Administrators (AASA)	Atlantic City, N.J. Feb. 20-23, 1976

American Association for Higher Education (AAHE)	Chicago, Ill. Mar. 7-10, 1976
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD)	Miami Beach, Fla. Mar. 13-17, 1976
American Association of Community and Junior Colleges (AACJC)	Washington, D.C. Mar. 17-19, 1976
National School Boards Association (NSBA)	San Francisco, Calif. Apr. 10-13, 1976
American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA)	Chicago, Ill. Apr. 11-14, 1976
National Catholic Education Association (NCEA)	Chicago, Ill. Apr. 19-22, 1976
American Industrial Arts Association (AIAA)	Des Moines, Iowa Apr. 19-24, 1976
National Association of Trade and Technical Schools (NATTS)	San Francisco, Calif. May 19-21, 1976
National Education Association (NEA)	Miami, Fla. June 25-30, 1976

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How Human Is Your Classroom?

By EDWIN X. TRAVERS
English and Philosophy Teacher, Robert E. Peary High School, Rockville, Maryland.

It was a simple mistake. I had inadvertently called one of my students by the name of his brother, whom I had taught the year before. "I'm not John. I'm *Phil,*" the boy snapped back, not so much in anger as in a my-name-is-important-and-you-ought-to-understand-that attitude.

On the surface the incident was trivial, one of those minor conflicts a teacher meets a hundred times a week. But upon further consideration, it became apparent to me that this seemingly trivial incident is indicative of students' fierce desire for a personal recognition—a desire that causes more teacher-student tension today than I have ever experienced in my 27 years in the classroom.

I began searching for some societal change which would explain this new student phenomenon. The more I thought about it, the more my thoughts turned toward existentialism. Of course, today's high schooler is much too complex a human being to be explained by any one term or system, but in my opinion an examination of existentialism vis-à-vis student behavior will enable us to understand better their actions, their foibles, and their problems.

What Phil was really saying was that his personalness was quite distinct and apart from everyone else's in the school, even his brother's.

This rampant individualism, which may well be the hallmark of today's high school student, causes perennial conflict between student and teacher and has serious portent for our large public school systems, which are still geared to mass education.

As I see it, existentialism insists that human life is understandable only in terms of an individual existence. It says that every person's experience of life is unique, radically different from everyone else's, and it strenuously shuns the view which assumes a universal human nature of which each person is only one example.

Because young people feel their life is very much their own to live, they tend to reject the experiences of older people—and their lifestyles, philosophies, and ethical principles.

The resultant conflict is nicely stated by Holden Caulfield in *Catcher in the Rye*. Toward the end of the book, Holden is sitting on a bench, watching his sister, Phoebe, riding a carousel. As he watches her reach for the gold ring, the symbol of happiness, he thinks:

All the kids kept trying to grab for the gold ring, and so was old Phoebe, and I was sort of afraid she'd fall off the goddam horse, but I didn't say anything or do anything. The thing with kids is, if they want to grab for the gold ring, you have to let them do it and not say anything. If they fall off, they fall off, but it's bad if you say anything to them.

So it is with kids today. They reach for that elusive ring of happiness, using only their own fragile experience as their guide. But to put Holden's thought into a question: Which is more harmful, letting youth learn from their own experience or alienating them by forcing them to follow the experiences of their elders, experiences which they totally reject?

As complicated as this experiential conflict is, their sexual-ethical world is even more so and has been more profoundly influenced by the existential atmosphere in which they live. While few young people have read Joseph Fletcher's *Situation Ethics,* many of them embrace the philosophy of that book—that is, they believe that the morality of an act is determined by the circumstances under which it is committed.

The confusion most youngsters experience arises when adults tell them that there are ethical absolutes but act in a manner which denies that this is so.

What of the sexual world? Today, as sex becomes the warp and woof of the students' life, they see it used indiscriminately by adults to sell cigars, pleasure, and motor oil. They accept the commercialized sex of the TV shows and movies, they understand the low-key sex in many TV commercials and magazine ads, and they are aware of its

subtle use in political campaigns. Watching their society use sex in this way, they see nothing wrong in doing the same. They reject the injunction that they must accept universal absolutes in their ethical-sexual lives when they see a world about them filled with existential here-and-now judgments.

Today there is a tendency to involve high school students in curriculum design, teacher evaluation, and course appraisal, perhaps an unconscious admission of just how deeply the existential atmosphere has insinuated itself into the school system. But students still feel unsatisfied because the basic premise of the educational system remains the same: that there is a proven, true curriculum which is suitable for all students, a sort of universal mold into which all must fit if they are to be called "educated." High school students feel that most of the curriculum is not really relevant to them.

College students face much the same kind of irrelevance, but they have matured enough to accept the fact that if they want a degree, the symbol of what society calls "being educated," they must play the game.

High school students frequently drift through their subjects either performing in a perfunctory manner or failing. While they recognize that a curriculum tailored to each student's needs is an impossibility, they feel that much more could be done to make the subjects they have to study and the manner in which they have to study them more individualized, personalized, and above all more humanized.

In 1923, Martin Buber, the renowned Jewish philosopher-theologian, wrote *I and Thou,* one of the early expressions of existential thought. In it, he said something which helps explain why today's students insist on one-to-one encounters as a necessary part of their interpersonal relationships.

The moment of meeting is not an "experience" that stirs in the receptive soul and grows to perfect blessedness; rather, in that moment something happens to the man. At times, it is like a light breath; at times, like a wrestling bout, but always—*it happens*. The man who emerges from the act of pure relation that so involves his being has now in his being something more that has grown in him, of which he did not know before and whose origin he is not rightly able to indicate.

While few students have heard of Buber and fewer still have read him, they absorb his thought from the existential atmosphere which surrounds them. Perhaps they do not *know* that they emerge from a one-to-one encounter with "something which has grown in them," but they *feel* it. They feel the richness of the experience; they feel the growth which is the result of the dialectical exchange.

It is this desire, this psychological need of students to have a one-to-one exchange with their teachers, which causes many teacher-student conflicts. Ironically, as this need in the student grows, teachers' class loads increase, thus depriving students of an essential educational need and teachers of an atmosphere in which they can teach more effectively.

This need for deeply personal relationships explains the disturbing frankness of today's students. They are not uncomfortable in situations which frightened previous generations. Unlike the students of old, who suffered in silence, today's youngsters are just as likely as not to tell their teacher, Mr. Jones, that he is boring, gives unfair tests, or even that his tie does not match his shirt. And they are just as honest with each other.

This existential need for a one-to-one encounter has also created a tense student-administration situation. Not satisfied with anything less than eyeball-to-eyeball contact, students want to discuss the "problems of the school" with the busy person in charge, someone whose schedule usually does not permit this. They want to cut through the red tape and committee mentality so characteristic of today's decision-making machinery. They want immediate action, and one way they try to get it is by insisting on a one-to-one showdown with the person or persons responsible for the decision making. Trying to reconcile traditional school decorum with an existentially oriented student body makes the modern high school tension-ridden.

Many complex reasons account for the myriad disciplinary problems in any large high school. Most are in no way existential in nature, but some are an outgrowth of the students' existential needs.

The majority of students today have adapted to large classes, but a significant number have not. The traditional view concerning these latter students is that they are troublemakers. And indeed they are.

But frequently the origin of their disruption does not have traditional roots. In my opinion, the disruption in the schools stems in part from the large classes they are forced to attend. They are disturbed, even threatened, by the coldness of today's classroom atmosphere. Often, they manifest this inward unrest in deviant behavior.

We can no longer afford to assume that classroom disruption stems from traditional causes. If overall viable solutions for disruptions are to be found, we must begin to search for causes within the system itself and not be satisfied with solutions which can easily be attributed to outside sources.

Making classrooms more human and comfortable calls for large expenditures of money and energy. Only time will tell whether society will elect to make this investment. Meanwhile, all we teachers can do is to try to humanize and personalize our classrooms—including remembering to get our students' names straight. □

Des Moines Family Learning Centers

By MAUREEN MILLER
Department of Community and Adult Education, Des Moines, Iowa, Public Schools.

Where can parents meet with other parents to come to grips with family concerns—a breakdown in communications, for example? Or where can groups of adults gather to seek answers to their personal challenges in dealing with topics such as alienation, self-acceptance, creative conflict?

Where can parents work side by side with their own children, preparing lessons, helping them learn? Where can parents, grandparents—adults of all ages—finish high school or brush up on forgotten skills?

At Des Moines Family Learning Centers, people can do all these things and more. And, like the over 700 participants already served by the Centers, they can find that school at Family Learning Centers (FLC's) is unlike any classroom they ever remembered.

In an atmosphere of freedom, informality, sharing, and accessibility, the Centers offer adult education in several elementary school locations.

During the first three school years of operation (1972-75), the FLC project was federally funded under joint operation of the Department of Community and Adult Education of the Des Moines Public Schools and the Adult Education Department of the Des Moines Area Community College.

This school year, however, the Des Moines schools have adopted FLC, the first federally funded project the system has ever adopted formally.

The FLC project began with two Centers staffed by full-time specialists. The next year, four Centers were operating. The third year, with a much-tightened schedule and a lower ceiling on expenditures, six Centers were in force on a half-time basis with a half-time family learning specialist (FLS). One Center has now closed because of a population shift and a resulting decline in potential enrollees. Five centers are currently in operation.

The project involves parents, adults, and children in an educational process that includes both adult and elementary education. It offers to adult educators another answer to recruitment and retention of students and to elementary educators an effective means of involving parents in the education of their children.

Moreover, the Centers serve as hubs of school-community relations. They help tie in parent and community interest to the school through their easy accessibility and the variety of their programs. These include core FLC programs as well as classes arranged to meet each community's special requests. Some of the Centers receive "feed in" from school-community councils that look to Family Learning Centers as part of their overall focus on school operations.

The sharing, freedom, and informality are immediately apparent at the Centers. Shiny Parsons tables, colorful plaid davenports, and comfortable chairs are grouped in the discussion areas. Dining tables and chairs used for studying blend with the furniture islands, which store instructional material.

In this unstructured setting, learning is divided into two basic areas: the family block of education and the adult block of education.

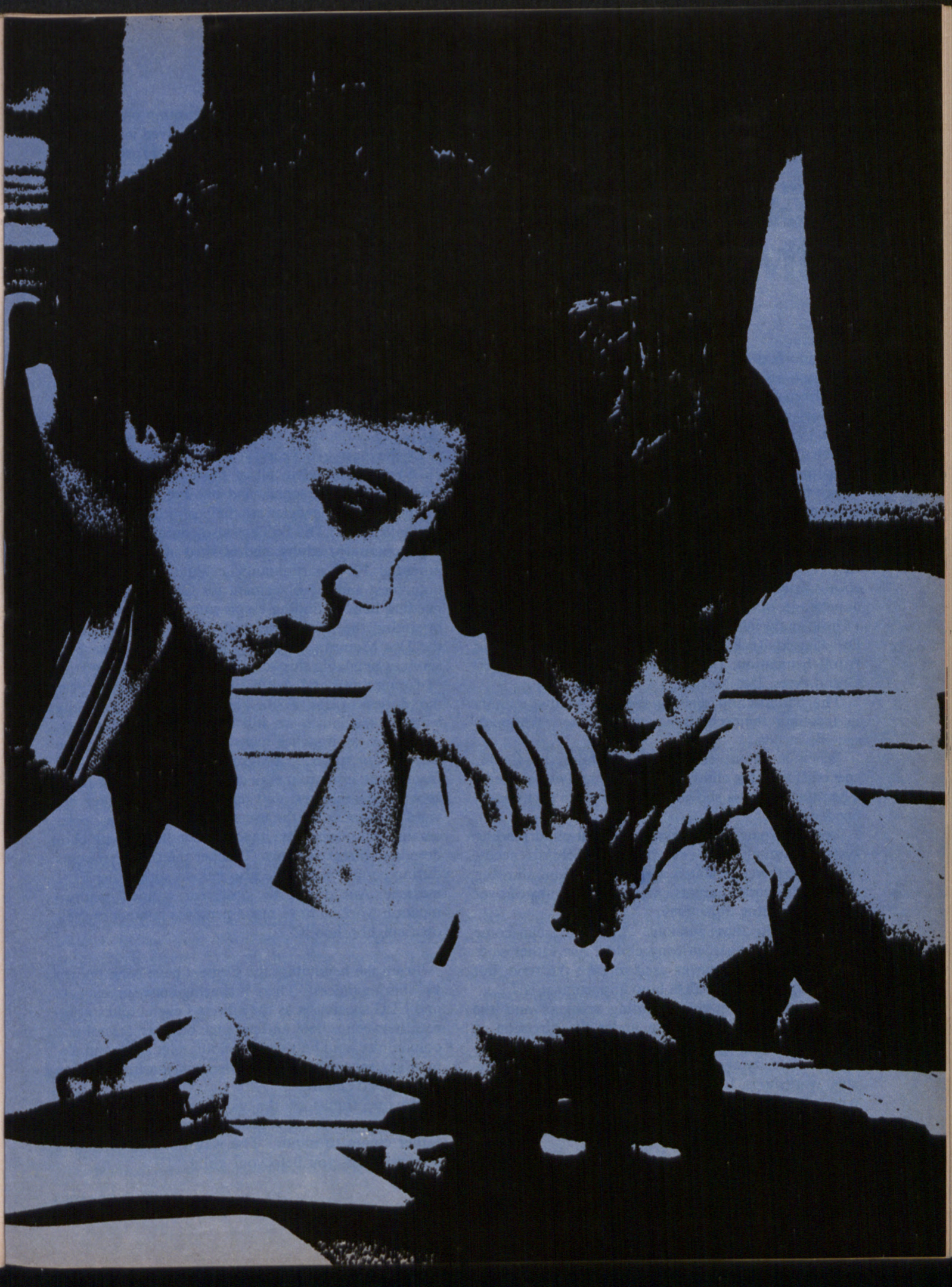
The family block involves workshops on the principles of parenting and parent-child reading sessions.

Parents of all ages who are enrolled in the workshops gather weekly to tackle one common subject—"How Can I Be a Better Parent?" They zero in on a variety of topics, including "Helping My Child Feel Worthwhile" and "What To Do When Children Misbehave."

Comments from the parents indicate that the workshops help. "It was hard, real hard, putting these principles into practice, but they have paid off. My whole family situation has improved greatly!" said one mother.

Another said, "I no longer dislike being around my kids. I enjoy having them at home and don't dread school vacations."

At the Centers, parents can work side by side with their children, preparing lessons, helping them to learn. →



The Family Learning Centers help tie in parent and community interest through their easy accessibility and the variety of their programs.

In addition to information learned from formal presentations, workshop participants gain much insight from informal group discussions. Various participants have said, "I thought I had problems, but when I came to the workshops, I realized my own troubles were minor." And, "It is comforting to know other parents are also having problems."

For the past two years, 10 workshops were offered and repeated cyclically throughout the year. This autumn, a new series of 30 has been adopted. The curriculum materials for these *Family Learning Center Workshops—A Series of Growth and Getting Along Together* consist of a moderator's outline and a package of worksheets pertaining to each topic. (These materials are available on request. Write to Dr. Gareld Jackson, Director of Community and Adult Education, Des Moines Public Schools, 1800 Grand Ave., Des Moines, IA 50307.)

The parent-child reading sessions involve parents in teaching their children according to each one's specific needs.

When a parent comes with a child, the Center specialist tests the child to determine individual needs. Then the parent is shown exactly what to do to boost needed skills.

Pretests (part of a packaged parent-child reading system) are given to determine the child's needs, which are then correlated with prescriptions showing the exact material parents can use to meet any of over 400 K-6 reading objectives.

Parents like these sessions. "I'm glad I can come to school and work with my child," one father said. "At home, we just never used to take the time, but we do now, for we realize how important it is!"

Both the parent-child reading sessions and the parent-discussion groups are under the direction of the family learning specialist, who serves in a managerial capacity at each Center. The FLS also moderates workshops for parents of preschool children, which, in some areas, are offered several times a year in cooperation with the school's Early Learning Center.

The adult block of education focuses on adults only. Some participants may be learning or brushing up on basic skills; others may be involved in an exciting language, logic, and comprehension program or a series of popular human relations workshops, *Hanging In There—Coping or "Copping Out."*

Adults may also be working in the high school equivalency program (known as GED). Instructors for these classes are from the Department of Community and Adult Education.

Coordinators from this Department also help arrange other adult education programs specifically requested by each community. As with the GED, these classes are held at times that do not conflict with the core Family Learning Center, a half-day operation. (The half-time FLS in each center handles the core programs, thus making the Centers also available for a variety of other activities.)

In the past two years, a family service specialist (FSS) has worked in all of the Centers, serving as liaison with legal, social, and psychological agencies whenever these agencies are the best-qualified to serve a client's needs. The FSS has also conferred with children; counseled adults; and assisted in recruitment of potential FLC participants, evaluation of program outcomes, and job placement for Center participants needing help in finding employment. Now, however, operating the five Centers on the smaller budget of the Des Moines schools precludes having these FSS services available this school year. The existing staff of Community and Adult Education has taken over the duties of the FSS. The five half-time family learning specialists are still at the Centers, however.

Various approaches have been used to spread the word about the FLC program. Publicity has ranged from home visits to media campaigns involving radio spots, news releases, and television spots. Other devices have included the use of fliers in churches, posters throughout the city, handouts sent home with children, and direct mailings. Teacher referrals to parents during conferences have also helped spread the FLC message. And during the past year, trained communication workers have made personal contact in their own neighborhoods.

From the beginning, the Centers have been known as "sharing places." There is sharing between teachers and FLC specialists as they discuss each child's progress, between school and parents, between school and community, and between the adult education and elementary school staffs. And there is sharing between parents and children.

As one thinks of the workshop participants all working together as a group, the statement of one father comes to mind: "The way I see it, when you help yourself, you help your child." □

Community Involvement in Metropolitan Nashville

By **JOHNELLA H. MARTIN,** *President,*
JUNE KENNEDY, *President-Elect, and*
GEORGE KERSEY, *Immediate Past-President,*
Metropolitan Nashville Education Association.

In the fall of 1970, the public school system of Nashville faced the first of two decisive federal court orders. The initial directive required full integration of each school's professional staff, thus eliminating predominantly black faculties and reassigning teachers so that all school faculties would be approximately 80 percent white and 20 percent black.

One year later came the second federal mandate: Schools were required to integrate, and no school was to have a majority of black students.

Carrying out this second mandate involved extensive crosstown busing, moving school opening hours up to as early as 7:00 a.m., and reorganization of about 100 schools (some were reorganized with only one grade; many, with just two; few elementary schools remained K-6).

Great community unrest resulted from these changes, and two political campaigns (one for mayor and one for U.S. Congress) aggravated the tensions. Both campaigns involved the same challenger who was opposing the incumbent each time and who made the federal court order his rallying point.

In both elections, the incumbents were reelected, which alleviated the growing unrest to some extent. However, as schools opened in September 1971, white parents picketed many of them, and students staged boycotts. In addition, Nashville's first large comprehensive high school opened, bringing together the students from at least three separate high schools.

Believing that substantive professional involvement is essential before any school system can make effective use of community involvement, leaders in the Metropolitan Nashville Education Association began working actively several years ago to improve the Metro Nashville Public Schools. They are committed to changes that will benefit the system, the teachers, and the students they teach.

Traditionally, teachers had looked to the PTA for community support. But implementation of the second federal mandate dealt this organization a stunning blow: Most PTA officers now found their children no longer attended the schools where they, the parents, had assumed leadership roles. Should they continue with their duties, or should they assume responsibilities in a new setting?

Local school staffs worked diligently to encourage parent participation in the affairs of the schools, making personal contacts, distributing newsletters, and organizing car pools.

Another factor in many secondary schools was the reorganization of the PTA. In recognition of the influence and the contribution students can make, parent-teacher-student associations were formed. These have proved valuable, not only in gaining the students' points of view but in increasing parent attendance at school activities. (Parents are almost always attracted to school events when their children take part.)

Despite all these efforts, some local schools lost their PTA units. Nevertheless, the PTA has survived in Nashville, and its voice is still heard in support of the public schools.

The court order placed other traditional programs in jeopardy. For a number of years, Metro Nashville Public Schools had scheduled parent-teacher conferences at the elementary level. On conference days, teachers were freed from student responsibilities to discuss with individual parents their children's achievements. This practice had proved worthwhile in promoting communication and understanding and in establishing rapport. With the neighborhood school no longer intact, could these conferences continue?

By using many of the methods that had ensured the PTA's survival (personal contacts, newsletters, car pools, and so on), the teachers and principals scored another victory for the schoolchildren of Nashville: Parent-teacher conferences are still alive and well.

Continuance of time-tested programs was a boon, but new efforts were obviously needed. In 1975, therefore, recruitment of community volunteers to serve in the public schools intensified. Under the leadership of former NEA President Helen Bain, a concerted

campaign began to enlist volunteer help. Churches carried special inserts in their bulletins; press, radio, and television spots proclaimed the concept.

Since Metro Nashville Public Schools are divided into three districts (each with its own superintendent, but under one director of schools and one board of education), district committees were established to implement the program. These committees were to orient and train new volunteers.

(Students also serve as volunteers: Those from the senior highs and from Nashville's 11 colleges and universities, tutor low achievers on a one-to-one basis.)

It is too soon to make an evaluation, but if this program continues to operate as planned, with the program in each school built around the specific requests of each faculty, the verdict should be resoundingly favorable. Community people are in the schools giving service; but they are also able to observe and to report the experiences, problems, and achievements of pupils and teachers.

The goals of this program are best explained by its coordinator, Helen Bain: "Through the volunteer program, the people of Nashville will get to know and appreciate each other. It offers adults and children of different racial, ethnic, and economic backgrounds an opportunity to get acquainted and work together."

The results of another innovation, the Citizens' Advisory Committee, are being analyzed by professional educators. Originally proposed by the director of schools, the Committee was expected to encourage representative participation of citizens in the construction of the school budget and in defining priorities of the school program.

In some local buildings, the effort seems to be succeeding. Many elected teachers, principals, and lay citizens work together to establish priorities. This process continues at the district level. However, the central Committee has been a cause of concern. Its meetings have not invariably been represented by all racial, ethnic, or socioeconomic groups. The participants are well-meaning but busy people who receive most of their information from the central office staff.

Teachers and principals recognize the potential of the Citizens' Advisory Committee for supporting and contributing to the efforts of educators to achieve a better educational opportunity for pupils. Nevertheless, we believe that the Committee has been used as a tool against teachers and principals as they strive to obtain an appropriate salary schedule and a larger voice in curriculum decision making.

All programs are not universally approved, nor have all of them been properly evaluated. Just the same, Metro Nashville is proud that united effort has resulted in continued community support for the public schools. □

HOME-SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS

(Continued)

Boise

By JO GOUL
Specialist, Boise (Idaho) School Volunteers, and Secretary, National School Volunteer Program, Inc.

"Thanks to her, we now have a complete bibliography of our multimedia kits for each of the teachers, catalog card filing is always up-to-date, and dozens of books get to the shelves much faster than they would if she were not helping."

"In the beginning I didn't want volunteers. Now I don't think I could get along without them."

The above quotes are comments from a librarian and a teacher about Boise, Idaho, school volunteers. Under the direction and guidance of professionals, more than 1,000 of these volunteers have responded to the invitation of teachers to help students in 37 Boise public schools.

Volunteers are not new to Boise or to education. The concept of volunteers in education is a deep-rooted one. In an earlier day in our nation, volunteers built schools, boarded teachers, and chopped wood for the school stove. School volunteer programs, as organized and coordinated activities, however, are relatively new.

Boise's program is similar in organization to the more than 3,000 other such programs in the nation. With the approval, cooperation, and financial support of the Independent School District of Boise, the Boise School Volunteer (BSV) office serves as the central coordinating agency for the recruitment, training, and placement of volunteers in the city schools.

The foremost aim of the program is to assist professional personnel in their efforts to provide maximum educational opportunities for all schoolchildren in the city. BSV tries to achieve this by relieving teachers of nonteaching tasks, giving special help to students with special needs, and enriching the curriculum by providing resources to the professional personnel.

School volunteers give their time, talents, and energies to help students develop a better self-image, become productive responsible citizens, and succeed academically.

Incidentally, they serve as public relations people, too. If there is a problem between school, home, and

Likes Its School Volunteers

community, volunteers may help bridge the gap.

The names of 300 persons who have specific interests or skills are on file in the BSV office. When these people, called Special Resource Volunteers, visit a class, they can bring enrichment to the curriculum and reinforce what students have been learning.

For example, for the past four years, a retired engineer, aided by his wife, has given more than 200 special resource presentations on American Indians and, in so doing, has thrilled students with his stories and collection of Indian artifacts—a collection which fills two 20-foot-long tables.

The five-year-old Boise program sponsors orientations, conferences, training sessions, a 15-hour workshop for volunteer reading tutors, a junior Great Books leadership training course, and social gatherings.

To a large extent, the success of the program is dependent on the local school volunteer coordinator. With the assistance of the BSV office, a community-wide Advisory Board, the principal, and the professional staff, the local coordinator serves as chairperson of the individual school program. The coordinator, who is usually a member of the board of directors of the PTA or other parent organization, attends faculty meetings and acts as a liaison between the community and school. The coordinator also stimulates parent- and community-volunteer involvement in the school and tries to interest teachers in involving volunteers in their class program.

All coordinators meet monthly with the BSV office and various members of the Advisory Board for orientation and problem-solving activities. After receiving requests for volunteers from teachers, they recruit them from their respective school communities. If volunteers are not available from the school community, the BSV office refers persons who have volunteered from the community at large.

Throughout the community, the BSV office recruits volunteers and makes the community aware of the program through the newspaper; television and radio; bumper stickers, tent cards, and posters; and slide presentations to groups, agencies, and organizations. In the local school community, the BSV office, the school coordinator, and various chairpeople recruit volunteers by sponsoring coffees, by sending fliers to parents through the students, and by telephoning.

A few Boise principals and teachers have been hesitant to involve the community in their schools. In criticizing the expenditure of $4,000 that the school district put into the volunteer program the first year, one principal stated: "Give me that money, and I will have the best program in the district." However, he was forgetting that the program serves all 37 schools, not just one, and that during the 1974-75 school year, the BSV office arranged for 846 resource presentations, each reaching 25 to 30 students.

If a volunteer program is to be successful, principals and teachers must want volunteers and know what they want them to do and why. Professionals may also need help in learning how to use volunteers effectively if the program is to benefit all involved.

Principals and teachers should be aware that they will be largely responsible for volunteer preservice and in-service training, requiring time and effort.

One volunteer states: "I feel most of the training has to come from the teacher. I also feel that the teacher-volunteer relationship makes a volunteer assignment successful or unsuccessful. I try to supplement what the teacher does and would hesitate to go into the classroom pushing my ideas. However, I do feel free to make suggestions and have been asked for my opinion."

Dependability of volunteers is sometimes the most important factor in teacher acceptance of them.

If occasions arise when a volunteer and a teacher cannot work together, the BSV specialist and the principal are the ones who deal with the problem. But, of course, any volunteer can be reassigned if either the teacher or the volunteer is unhappy about the working relationship.

As a result of its rapid growth, BSV has not had time to formally evaluate its accomplishments. Those involved in the program see a need for studies that would measure the extent of program acceptance by both students and professionals, student achievement, and any need for training of volunteers and professionals.

Despite various difficulties, however, school volunteer programs can do much to stimulate community interest, understanding, and support for education. This, in turn, can help pass bond issues, educate parents to their children's academic needs, and create more interest in the schools. □

Education for Parenthood

By PAMELA KIRKLAND
Instructor, Exploring Childhood and Psychology, Owensboro (Kentucky) High School.

Everything has its season; everything has its time, but time for the adolescent can be very frustrating and confusing. Having worked with young people for several years, I find this becoming more obvious every day. I see that this period of rapid change in our country is leaving its mark on the family as a unit and upon each individual within the family. I believe that we must look for ways to strengthen the ties of the family that are being torn by a fast-paced, seemingly apathetic industrial society.

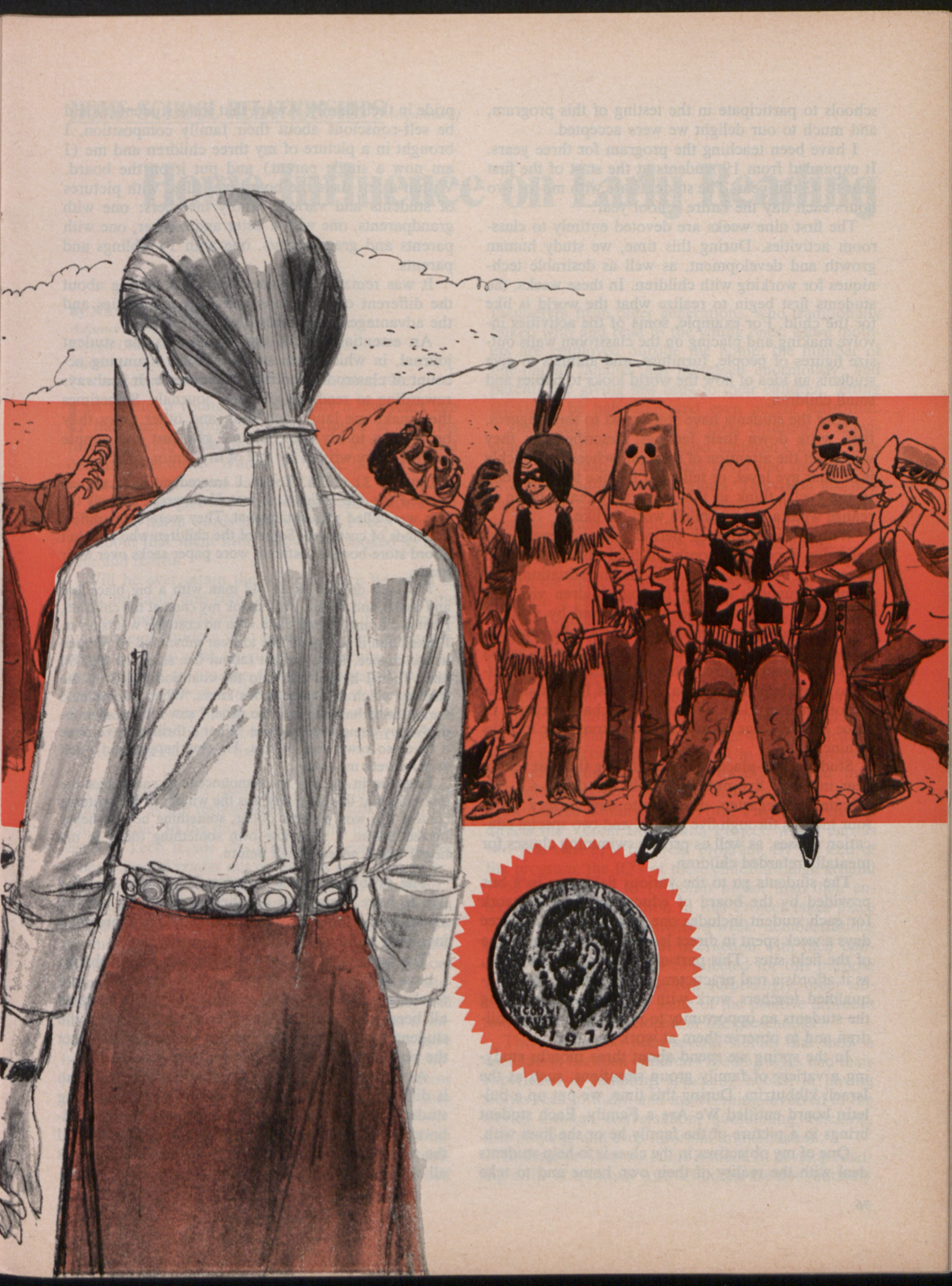
Even in education, we have been failing our youth. With transmitting the culture and socializing the young as the central aims of education, we have left little time in the classroom for the students to discover their own feelings, needs, and frustrations.

During the summer of 1973, James Hilliard, the superintendent of our school system, and Duane Miller, the school psychologist, presented me with a program for high school students that was to be field-tested at 200 sites within the United States the following year.

The program, entitled Exploring Childhood, was funded and supported by three government agencies: the Office of Education, the National Institute of Mental Health, and HEW's Office of Child Development. The goals of the program include helping students to view childhood and adolescence as an important time for becoming a person, to develop confidence in their own identities, to understand their own beliefs and values, and to see how others experience the world.

Early on, we applied on behalf of the Owensboro

"When I completed the outfit by handing him the cane, I saw a burst of wonderful joy come over his face. →


1972

schools to participate in the testing of this program, and much to our delight we were accepted.

I have been teaching the program for three years. It expanded from 19 students at the start of the first year to 43 this year. The students are with me for two hours each day the entire school year.

The first nine weeks are devoted entirely to classroom activities. During this time, we study human growth and development, as well as desirable techniques for working with children. In these weeks, the students first begin to realize what the world is like for the child. For example, some of the activities involve making and placing on the classroom walls outsize figures of people, furniture, and animals to give students an idea of how the world looks to babies and small children.

After the students have stood next to these figures, they write down their feelings, describe how they would get the attention of someone whose belt buckle is at their eye level, or tell what it's like to look a dog in the eye! I think at this point they really begin to realize what a young child's world is like.

Within this nine-week period, I also prepare students for upcoming months of field observation and experience by engaging in role-playing situations and group discussions and by having children visit our classroom. These activities are followed by visits to various schools and grade levels for observations. Subsequently, each student spends about nine weeks working in each of three schools that have been selected to provide insight into a variety of factors such as socioeconomic class and into the characteristics of three different age groups ranging from four months to nine years.

Student field-placement sites during the past school year included five public schools (grades K-4), one private kindergarten, one private day nursery (ages four months through five years), and two special education classes, as well as private swimming classes for mentally retarded children.

The students go to the various field sites in a bus provided by the board of education. The fieldwork for each student includes one-and-a-half hours three days a week spent in direct learning experience at one of the field sites. This part of the program is unique, as it affords a real practicum in both seeing how well-qualified teachers work with children and in giving the students an opportunity to relate with young children and to observe them at work and play.

In the spring we spend about three months studying a variety of family group situations, such as the Israeli kibbutzim. During this time, we put up a bulletin board entitled We Are a Family. Each student brings in a picture of the family he or she lives with.

One of my objectives in the class is to help students deal with the reality of their own home and to take pride in their family. Aware that some students would be self-conscious about their family composition, I brought in a picture of my three children and me (I am now a single parent) and put it on the board. Within a few days the board was filled with pictures of students and various family members: one with grandparents, one with a sister and mother, one with parents and grandparents, one with 14 siblings and parents.

It was remarkable to hear students talking about the different compositions and sizes of families and the advantages and disadvantages of each.

An essential part of the program is the student journal, in which each student keeps a running account of classroom and field experiences. It is always rewarding to read the students' journals. Sometimes they make me laugh out loud, and other times they bring tears to my eyes. Let me give just one sample journal entry written by one of my senior girls:

> October 31, 1974. Today I entered my field site all dressed for the holiday. It was Halloween, and all the kids were filled with excitement. They wore many different kinds of costumes. Some of the children who couldn't afford store-bought costumes wore paper sacks over their heads.
>
> I arrived dressed as an old man with a big black hat and a coat and a cane. As I shook my cane at the children, I noticed a small black child with no costume whatsoever. I asked him if he would like to wear mine, and he jumped at the chance. I put the hat (about five sizes too big) on him. Then I helped him into the coat and rolled up the sleeves, which still came to his knees. When I completed the outfit by handing him the cane, I saw a burst of wonderful joy come over his face. What a thrill to have done a favor so rewarding as this. He was happy, and I felt as if he were my own.
>
> Later on in the day the announcement came over the intercom that this little boy was the winner of the costume contest. He won a silver dollar, something he had never owned before. I also now own something (deep in my heart) that I never owned before.

The problems of the program have been few. I'd like to have more boys enrolled in the class, but the mistaken notion still seems to exist that a program involving child study is only for girls.

The rewards certainly far outweigh any problems I have had with the program. The principals and teachers we have worked with at the field sites have all been just great. I only wish they could read the student journals and realize the tremendous impact the program is having on my students' lives.

At this point, measuring the results of the program is difficult. There is some evidence that participating students come to understand the importance of childhood, the rewards and frustrations of parenthood, and the need for self-understanding. Doesn't this make it all worthwhile? □

Home Influence on Early Reading

By NANCY LARRICK
Adjunct Professor of Education,
Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania;
Author of A Parent's Guide to Children's Reading *(fourth edition, Doubleday and Bantam, 1975).*

Last spring, a young man who only a few years ago had been cutting our grass stopped in with his three-year-old, a darling youngster, wide-eyed and delicate of feature. "Wanna see a bad boy?" said the father. "I mean a real bad boy."

I felt as though I had been slapped in the face. Even now those harsh words smite me, and I keep wondering about that silent little fellow who looked so insecure and fearful.

Will he ever attain the self-assurance he needs to speak up easily and comfortably—and to develop the curiosity essential to learn to read? Or will he join the multitude of children who never build the strong self-image basic to oral language, to reaching out and creating, and to reading the printed page? No one knows, of course, but one thing we can be sure of: Children's success or failure as readers will be shaped more by the influence of home than by their teachers and the materials they use.

Traditionally the teaching of reading has been thought of as the responsibility of the school and the school alone. In the past, some parents have been advised to keep hands off. I actually heard a teacher order a second grader not to take his reader home because, as she explained to me, "He might get ahead."

That philosophy might have worked in the past, but ours is a different world. And nowhere does this show up more dramatically than in the modern home, where prekindergartners on the average spend more than 60 percent of their waking hours watching television. By the time they enter kindergarten, they will have devoted more hours to TV viewing than a student spends in four years of college classes. They have been bombarded with adult language about adult subjects and have seen millions of words cavort across the screen in commercials that slash relentlessly into every program.

While television has taken over in 96 percent of the homes in this country, family life has changed drastically. Parents with young children have separated themselves from older generations, who traditionally talked with and read to the young ones. More mothers are employed outside the home; the number of one-parent families has increased enormously; and parents are giving less time to their children, letting television be babysitter and even parent substitute.

Hundreds of thousands of these children of television have never seen a good children's book, have never been read to, and have never had the example of adults reading in their homes. Television has preempted the time when earlier generations of children learned to raise questions and engage in the conversation that develops facility with oral language.

All the while, numerous research studies have shown the tremendous influence of the home environment on a child's intellectual development. ". . . in terms of intelligence measured at age 17," says Benjamin Bloom of the University of Chicago, "about 50 percent of the development takes place between conception and age four."

Hundreds of experimental projects throughout the country are showing that parents who build their children's self-assurance, who engage them in pleasant verbal interaction, and who read to them contribute to their children's increased vocabulary and their eagerness to explore books on their own.

In Nassau County, New York, Phyllis Levenstein directs the Verbal Interaction Project, which enrolls two-year-olds in a two-year program. By the end of the program, the IQ's of these children range around 105, generally 12 to 17 points higher than their entering scores. The action in this Project takes place in the homes, where twice-a-week demonstrations guide parents into verbal interaction with their children about toys and books selected for this purpose and given to the family. Not surprisingly, older siblings appear to absorb some of the positive attitudes and skills being developed in the preschoolers.

There have also been several studies that show a correlation between children's reading skills and their experience in handling appealing books; in having stories read to them; and in becoming involved in the stories through conversation, questioning, retelling, role playing, and even informal dramatization.

In these projects no effort is made to develop reading skills of a formal sort. Children are not routinely

"You don't have to read to me anymore," said Olaf.
"Now I'll read to you!"

Illustration excerpted from OLAF READS by Joan Lexau. Illustrated by Harvey Weiss.
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taught the alphabet, for example, or given word drills or phonics. Instead, emphasis is on the development of oral language facility, along with sharpening of curiosity and powers of observation that lead to a keener grasp of cause and effect. Appealing children's books are used constantly to draw children into listening, informal questioning, searching for picture details, and activities leading to conversation and the broadening of concepts as well. Children's self-confidence thrives in this climate.

At home parents can move toward these goals with greater assurance of success than can the teacher, who sees the child for only a few hours a day and must try to meet the needs of 20 to 30 children at once.

Lacking the formal training of classroom teachers and project demonstrators, what can parents do? The possibilities are endless once parents realize the importance of building their children's sense of security and self-worth (without which they are unlikely to reach out to question, to experiment, to read); of helping them develop facility with oral language; and of introducing them to the pleasures of reading.

The time to begin is with the first feeding, pampering, and bathing, when the parent's singing or chanting and gentle conversation begin to set the stage for the infant's participation only a few months later. One of my friends greets her baby each morning with a song she made up: "Good Morning to You," to the tune of "Happy Birthday." After only a few months, Andy is responding with smiles and gurgles that before very long will become real words and phrases, I am convinced. Even now he is sure of his place of esteem in that family.

Many of the old nursery rhymes fit into the small child's daily routine: "Rub-a-dub-dub" while the youngster is having a bath, for example, and "Oh, dear, what can the matter be?" when tears and whimpers threaten to take over.

By 18 months or two years, children like to join in —at first by repeating such Mother Goose phrases as "goosey, goosey, gander" or "hickety, pickety, my black hen." Soon the child will be echoing the familiar lines of "This little pig went to market" and singing the old song "Oh, do you know the muffin man . . . ?"

Even before children are talking, they enjoy conversation. Their part may be wordless at first, but they respond through smiles and body movement until they come out with the sounds of their own first language. Children who have been drawn into what may seem to be a one-way conversation are often the first to use words and sentences. The more they use them, the more confident and the more articulate they become.

Parents who operate on the principle that a child is to be seen but not heard are thereby stunting the child's skill with words, which is basic to reading.

Home demonstrators in the early childhood projects introduce parents to techniques that will encourage children to expand their first sentences and broaden both vocabulary and meaning. One technique is to paraphrase the child's two- or three-word sentences with further information and, hence, vocabulary. (For example, a child returning from the apartment across the hall may say: "Debbie's not there." That's clear and exact, but the parent might extend the idea to incorporate new ideas and words: "Debbie's gone to her grandmother's in New Jersey.")

Yet many adults, instead of helping a child to increase her or his ideas and vocabulary, deliberately drop their level to what they think is a child's level. One four-year-old corrected a doting aunt who inquired, "What's the doggie's name?" "That's no doggie," he said, "It's a Doberman pinscher."

Through conversation, children can be led to note specific details that support a generalization or conclusion. Three-year-olds can see it's raining and say so. But what evidence do they see? Raindrops beating on the windowpane, puddles forming in the street, umbrellas and raincoats, and perhaps the sound of rain, or even the smell of wet grass and leaves. Note the new words they will hear and use, as well as the skills of observation they will develop.

Reading aloud is one of the great ways to lead children into conversation and the search for details. (Can you find the ducks in the picture? Which is the mother duck? Where do you think the ducks are going?) At eight or nine months, children enjoy hearing the rhythmical language of a good picture book. Soon they will be holding the book and turning the pages as well as chiming in on repeated lines. By age two or three, they are likely to know the story so well that they will correct the slightest slip of the adult reader. And woe betide the artist who puts a blue jacket on the monkey when the text calls for a red one.

Older children learn to read and to look critically. As one editor of children's books put it: "Every publishing house should have a 10-year-old on the staff to catch the errors before a book is printed."

This kind of reading is most likely to begin at home with children who have been read to from playpen days and who have had access to tempting books. For parents, this means finding books to borrow or buy for their children.

With knowledge of the significance of their influence, with a little know-how, and with alluring books, parents can have a great impact on children's growth in reading from infancy through the preteen years.

Whether they do it will depend in large measure on whether the schools are ready to make the imaginative outreach to enlist parents' help and to guide them in their daily approach to children. The children are ready and ripe whenever we are. □

Needed: A Fair Shake

By NANCY MULLINS
Registered Nurse, Anna Maria, Florida.

Sixteen-year-old Belinda has worked hard on a 15-page term paper and is proud of her laboriously typed manuscript bound in clear plastic. Last to arrive in class before the bell, she drops the paper on top of the stack on the teacher's desk. The bell rings. The teacher picks up the top several papers, glances at them, and then, gazing at the top one—Belinda's—states: "Whenever a paper looks *too* good, I'm always suspicious of outside help."

This teacher has made a thinly veiled accusation of cheating, with no substantiation. Moreover, she has tacitly admitted that she thinks the assignment she has given is beyond the capabilities of the students to complete properly by themselves.

Even if Belinda does earn a good grade on her paper, the feeling that the teacher thinks she cheated will diminish her pride in her accomplishment. Belinda will probably not be motivated to put as much effort into the next paper.

• Twelve-year-old Paul, who is having a little trouble getting settled in a cope-for-yourself middle school, loses his lunch ticket. His parents give him more lunch money, and the lost ticket is forgotten until it turns up in the saddlebag of his bicycle a few weekends later, a little rain-smeared but with four perfectly good punches on it.

When the boy presents it for lunch the following Monday, the cafeteria manager takes one look at Paul's blurry name, declares the card a forgery, and takes it from him. Paul does without lunch that day. A phone call from his father to the principal the next morning gets his lunch ticket restored to him.

From this incident, Paul must conclude that children are expected to steal, and only adults (e.g., his father) can be trusted.

• Lee travels 12 miles to and from junior high each day by school bus. He doesn't like the driver, and she reciprocates his feelings.

One afternoon near the end of the school term, the students take their physical education equipment home on the bus. Someone takes a can of spray deodorant and sprays Lee's seatmate. Then someone else grabs the can and sprays another youngster. The commotion disturbs the driver, who pulls the bus off on to the shoulder of the road. Meanwhile, the one who has the can throws it toward the back of the bus, and it lands in Lee's lap. At that moment, the driver turns and sees Lee with the can. She orders him off the bus for the rest of the school year.

Lee tells the dean of boys what happened and gives him the name of the seatmate, who can corroborate his story. The dean listens, apparently sympathetically. When he looks up Lee's record and finds no evidence of his being a "troublemaker," he promises to discuss the matter with the driver. But he doesn't indicate he will talk with Lee's witness. In the interim, Lee is suspended from bus transportation.

Clearly, this is a case of Lee's word against the driver's. But Lee has been found guilty until proven innocent, with no due process of law at all.

The following morning, Lee's parents, who either have to get him reinstated on the bus or take him to school themselves for the duration of the suspension, protest his removal from the bus, demanding that the seatmate be called to give his account of the incident. The principal complies, and the seatmate agrees with Lee's version of the fracas. Then the principal questions the driver, who states that she didn't actually see Lee squirt anybody but assumes he must have, since she caught him with the can.

The decision: The suspension stands. The morals: An adult's assumption takes precedence over two children's certainty. Authority figures seem to expect young people to lie.

• A second-year Spanish student, Lucinda, has no great facility for languages, but she is a fairly determined young lady. Halfway through the course, she announces to her parents that she intends to drop Spanish. Believing that she is merely overwhelmed by makeup work occasioned by several days' illness and absence, they counsel Lucinda to dig into the back work before making a final decision about dropping the course.

"It isn't just the makeup work," she states sadly. "It's the teacher. All year long he's been putting the girls down, telling us we aren't as smart as the boys. Today I asked him for help with the makeup work, and he asked me why I bothered, since I'll probably just get married and raise a bunch of kids anyway."

for Children

Educators ought to be exerting every effort to make school a positive experience in democratic living and fair play.

Lucinda's parents, anxious not to subject their daughter to the teacher's sexual bias, concur with her decision. (No other teacher in the school teaches second-year Spanish.)

In a sense, Lucinda may have bested the teacher, for her parents supported her in dropping the course. But she will also feel some shame for having quit and for being female. And the instructor will still be teaching Spanish and still poisoning the self-esteem of his female students.

When thoughtful parents hear about such violations of justice, human dignity, and professional ethics, they are often loath to do anything about them. They don't want to put themselves in the same classification with parents who "think their kids can do no wrong." The former say to themselves, "Well, the world isn't perfect, and the sooner my child finds it out, the better." They tell themselves that enduring injustice is good training for the possibility of having to cope with an irrational employer, forgetting that adults can change jobs when they find themselves in an untenable position.

If the parents came through the same school system, they may counter the child's complaint with, "You think that teacher is bad now! When I had him, he hadn't started to mellow yet" and end up relating a worse instance of personal injury that occurred 20 years previously.

And that is my point, exactly. If we allow today's students to grow up thinking that abuses by authority are acceptable, they will feel perfectly justified in perpetrating these same abuses when they grow up and become authority figures. The public school system, which in my opinion is possibly one of the most undemocratic places in the world, ought to be exerting every effort to make school a positive experience in democratic living and fair play.

Children do not learn respect for authority by witnessing or experiencing abuse of authority. Therefore, no authority figure should abuse children. All accused children should be given a chance to defend themselves—and an unbiased ear to hear them. Teachers education and license to teach don't give them the right to hurt people.

Parents should stop feeling guilty about getting mixed up in their children's school problems. Children deserve as much attention when they *haven't* done anything wrong as when they *have*.

Principals should keep reminding school personnel of their tremendous people-building potential. The ability to deal with others democratically and humanely should rank with control of class, organization, and knowledge of subject matter on teacher evaluations—and should count double in the elevation of school employees to positions of even greater authority.

Colleges and universities involved in teacher training should give more attention to turning out humanized teachers, so that more and more of them will be deserving of the accolade, "Tough, but fair."

It's time for adults to accept the responsibility for securing fair play on behalf of the children who attend our schools. □

NEA Materials for Parents

A good time to reemphasize parents' involvement with the schools is during American Education Week, November 16-22. This year's theme is "Our Future Is in Our Schools."

The following is a small sampling of NEA materials that can be used throughout the year to clarify school programs and activities and to present essential background information to parents.

Five New Public Information Leaflets. Handy to use as giveaways at meetings or as mailers. Sold individually in packages of 30; $1.68 per package.

Career Education: What's It All About?
Learning Is Hard Work
Parents and Discipline
The Role of Public Education
Spelling—How It's Taught and How Parents Can Help

Send orders with payment to NEA Order Dept., The Academic Bldg., Saw Mill Rd., West Haven, CT 06516.

Write to NEA Publishing, Room 609, NEA Center, for free brochures on the "Briefing for Parents Series" and the "Parents and Teachers Together" program (parent volunteers in the school).

Dealing with Angry Adults

By WALTER D. ST. JOHN
Professor of Education, Keene (New Hampshire) State College.

Being human, people can occasionally become irate —even under the best of circumstances. Over a period of time, all schools, regardless of their reputation and effectiveness, can expect complaints, legitimate or otherwise, from the community.

It is important to remember that imagined grievances are as serious to the person who feels them as are real ones; that people are *primarily* emotional, not rational; and that even those who have no justifiable beef are entitled to a diplomatic explanation of why they are in error.

If the burden of handling aggrieved persons, particularly upset or angry ones, should fall on you, meet with them promptly—if possible in a private, comfortable setting where they can talk with you free from interruptions. Be friendly, project concern, and avoid defensiveness.

The following guidelines should help you cope successfully with a stressful or even potentially explosive situation:

1. Concentrate with an open mind on the person and his or her complaint. Focus on the feelings as well as the facts being expressed.

2. Listen carefully and allow full expression of the other person's viewpoint. Try to get the whole story and look for hidden feelings.

3. Do not interrupt, even if you disagree. Without offering any counterpoints, let the person talk as much as he or she needs to talk. The experience may act as a catharsis and result in better feelings and a willingness to listen to you later. Remember that attempting to explain or defend your position before the angry person has had the opportunity to speak fully creates added resentment.

4. When the initial verbal onslaught ends and nonverbal clues suggest that the grievant is more relaxed, ask questions in an interested but nondefensive manner in order to clarify confusing points.

5. Repeat in your own words the complaint and the essential aspects of the situation and obtain assurance that your understanding is correct.

6. Assure the person of your genuine concern. Usually, if you have listened with care and interest and have displayed understanding of the complaining person's perception of the problem, the battle is half won. The climate should be such that you can now begin to explain things as you perceive them.

If you know the facts and are certain that the complaint is not a legitimate one, you should firmly but diplomatically outline the actual situation. Do not be abrupt or aggressive in explaining that the complaint has no merit and will therefore have to be denied. At this stage especially, your attitude and manner are the key to successfully handling the complaint.

When the complaint happens to be a just and legitimate one, candidly admit the mistake and give assurances that it will not be repeated if humanly possible. If, however, there is no clear right or wrong to the problem, ask the person to suggest how it can be solved with fairness.

Once the situation is resolved one way or another, conclude the conference on a positive and pleasant note by thanking the person for bringing the matter to your attention and sharing his or her feelings. This wrap-up stage is crucial because it will be instrumental in determining the future relationship between you and the grievant. Your goal at this point should be to encourage ongoing communications between you as a representative of the school and the complaining person as a member of the community.

If the situation defies immediate solution, assure the person that you will deal with the matter promptly and attempt to come up with an answer.

During the follow-up investigation, get in touch with everyone involved and try to determine what the facts are and where the fault lies. After weighing all possible decisions and considering the probable effects of each, base your final decision on reason, but take feelings into consideration.

Once you have arrived at a just decision, schedule a meeting with the grievant. Explain your decision, thoroughly outline the reasoning behind it, and invite questions. Throughout the explanation, be alert to nonverbal as well as verbal clues to ascertain how the discussion is being received. Based on this feedback, adjust the wording and pace of your explanation to better assist the person in understanding and accepting the decision. □

The One-Parent Child and the Classroom Teacher

By GLORIA S. SMITH
Director, Urban Counseling Mental Health Programs, College of Education, Michigan State University, East Lansing, and
ALICE M. SCALES
Assistant Professor, School of Education, University of Pittsburgh.

Teachers should not assume that their students have fathers or mothers living at home, for the chances are that every class includes some children from one-parent families.

The number of one-parent families increased by 40 percent between 1960 and 1973, and over half of that increase took place after 1970. In a class of 25, teachers can expect, on the average, that about two children will be from such families. If those 25 children happen to be black, the count will be about 10.

There are plenty of reasons for the increase in one-parent families, such as the high mortality rate among inner-city males and the welfare rules, which have been attacked as antifamily. But the booming divorce rate is the biggest reason for the increase and the one that takes the problem into the realm of higher income groups.

The number of yearly divorces has increased 132 percent since 1960, making the one-parent family a common phenomenon in upper and middle income groups. By and large, father is the missing member in these single-parent families, and this trend promises to continue.

Many fatherless and motherless children are aggressive and disruptive or withdrawn and unreachable, and there is little doubt that the emotional stability of children from one-parent families can be in danger, not only because of the lost influence of a parent but also because one-parent families are often a cause or symptom of other problems.

Some experiences which are part of the lives of many fatherless and motherless children threaten a child's mental health. A number of children in single-parent homes have experienced abandonment, or they have watched the chronic physical or mental illness of a parent. Furthermore, other conditions which put children in the "high risk" category, such as unwed motherhood, teenage parenthood, and economic deprivation, are common in one-parent families.

Lack of finances can be a major problem in such families. Fatherless families, in particular, have borne the brunt of poverty. In 1959, such families made up 23 percent of those under the poverty level of income in this country. By 1974, that percent had risen to 46. According to one view, this is partly because women were ignored by federal job-training programs and partly because of the relatively descending pay rates for women. Furthermore, women have been severely restricted by the lack of credit extended to them. Generally speaking, in the past, when the husband went, the credit went with him. However, the federal Equal Credit Opportunity Act, which went into effect last month, prohibits discrimination by sex or marital status in the granting of credit.

But a large part of the income problem is inherent in the division of a family. As one lawyer stated: "Most couples are so deeply in debt when they divorce that there's not enough money for one household, let alone two." Consequently, alimony and child support payments are notoriously unreliable. Many ex-husbands default on such payments. The resulting financial bind is in part responsible for the fact that over half the children who have no fathers at home have working mothers. (Recent federal legislation has established a parent-locator system which, when fully operational, is designed to help divorced women locate their defaulting ex-husbands.) Many observers have pointed to this fact as an important reason for the tripling of juvenile offenses between 1960 and 1970. There may be more to the story than simple lack of supervision, however. Evidence suggests that the mere absence of a father could in itself be a factor in children's antisocial behavior. If a father is nothing else, he is a major socializing agent upon his children, and his absence creates a large gap in their learning experience. Traditionally, psychologists have believed that fathers not only bring home the bacon but also the views and the way of life of the society

in which they live and work outside the home.

Research seems to bear out the thesis that the father is indeed important as an instructor of social behavior, at least for sons. One hypothesis is that boys with fathers are more likely than boys without fathers to vent aggression in fantasy rather than in fact and are able to delay the fulfillment of their desires more readily in accordance with acceptable social behavior.

A study by Martin Hoffman of the University of Michigan showed that fatherless boys were less likely to conform to rules, accept blame, feel maximum amounts of guilt, base judgments on moral principles, or verbally accept moral values. Reflecting upon his findings, Hoffman suggested that while mothers seem able to compensate for the absence of fathers for daughters, they do not seem able to fill the gap for sons.

Mavis Hetherington, however, claims to have uncovered evidence that girls who have lost their fathers, particularly before the age of five, have trouble dealing with men. Daughters of divorce, she states, seem to become clumsily erotic around men or generally boy crazy. Girls whose fathers died while they were very young, on the other hand, tend to be shy and distant with men and to put boys off.

These findings parallel those which show that although the children of a divorce often have less confidence about dating, many of them are more promiscuous than children who have grown up with both parents in the home. This lack of self-confidence is borne out in studies which show that boys who have lost their fathers before the age of five have a less masculine view of themselves than other boys.

For example, James, an 11-year-old sixth grader, was very much a loner and was considerably less likely than other boys to become involved in so-called masculine activities (i.e., wrestling, football, baseball) during school play, and whenever he did, it was with great caution.

During parent-teacher conferences, his mother mentioned that James was without a father and that she was the only person he could depend on. This dependency was obviously carried over in school as James demonstrated little need for peers.

Some fatherless boys—especially underachieving ones—crave fathering. One male high school senior, a camp counselor, learned this when he was leaving the grounds of an elementary school where third graders he had in camp attended school. Two classes of children, an advanced and a slow class, spied the counselor through the classroom windows. But when the recess bell rang, only a swarm of children from the slow class rushed out the door, lunging at and clinging to the flabbergasted high schooler, whom they had nicknamed Skins. "Pick me up, Skins." "Give me a kiss, Skins." "Stay here, Skins."

The look of one youngster was particularly grim as he burrowed his head into the counselor's stomach while determinedly clutching at the young man's jacket. Finally, the children's teacher came to the counselor's aid, pulling the children off him and admonishing them, so that Skins could leave in his car, still not comprehending what had gotten into the third graders.

It is no accident that some children who are so starved for a paternal figure are underachievers.

What most research actually implies, however, is that while children with single parents have special problems, attempts to neatly pigeonhole their characteristics or needs are too simplistic. Children can be remarkably adaptable, and many develop a means to cope, either on their own or with the support of extended families and neighbors. Many one-parent families are models of a close-knit unity which, in some cases, is a positive reaction to the one-parent situation.

Mrs. Jones, a mother of three school-age children, is a single parent who enjoys and welcomes the support of her family. Her eldest daughter, 13-year-old Mary, has mastered some household responsibilities with the help of her mother, grandmother, and older cousin. Mary is responsible for preparing many of the meals, getting her younger brother and sister off to school, and teaching them to be responsible individuals. Yet, Mary's teacher indicates that her classwork ranks in the top 5 percent of the class. (The classwork of her brother and sister is also excellent.)

Obviously, the close-knit ties between Mary and her relatives have positively affected her work in school and her interest in her younger siblings.

Teachers would be well-advised to avoid stereotyping fatherless or motherless children as disturbed or in need of special attention. Stable children could be hurt by a teacher who takes a "poor child" attitude toward them because of their background. When interacting with children from one-parent families, teachers cannot afford to consider them as a group. As one psychologist points out:

> . . . the effects of father absence on the personality development of the boy cannot be considered in isolation from other factors such as the timing [of the father's departure], the length of the father's absence, the sociocultural milieu, the maternal behavior, and the relative availability of surrogate models [older brothers, uncles, etc.].

Children's reactions to living in a one-parent family are as varied as the circumstances under which maternal or paternal deprivation takes place.

Even a child who has had the benefits of a father living in the home for a number of years can turn to irrational or disruptive behavior because of the fears and anxieties that linger after the death or abandon-

ment of a father. Such a case is recounted in the book *Widow* by Lynn Caine, who was called to her son's school to discuss his bad behavior. When mother and teacher confronted the boy about his action, Ms. Caine recalled the following scene:

> Jon whipped around and out of the conference room. Then he came back and said in a tight, high voice, "I miss my father so much on weekends when he used to play football with me and talk and everything." And then he ran out of the room again. He was crying.

The scene classically portrays victimized children and the responsibility and guilt that is left in the laps of parents and teachers. Of course, there is no reason for feelings of guilt on the part of teachers or parents at the discovery that a child is in a precarious emotional state. Blame belongs only to those who turn their backs on the child at this point.

Too often, hard-to-handle children have been suspended from school and thrust back into a home where a working, single mother is left with the choice of institutionalizing her child or providing full-time care. Understandably, irate parents insist that if school systems offer free public education to children, then they are going to have to provide it for all, including their own hard-to-handle children. Two court rulings support their cause. Federal judiciaries in Pennsylvania and the District of Columbia have practically stated that school cannot deny hard-to-handle children an education.

It may be time for parents and teachers to unite to find positive solutions to the problems of hard-to-handle children. Suspension is not an answer, and an occasional visit to the counselor's office will not resolve emotional difficulties, no matter how qualified the counselor may be. We believe that emotional difficulties, like all mental health problems, are basically social problems, and that they need social solutions.

Many emotionally disturbed people suffer from one common factor—social isolation. We think that real people-to-people relationships probably treat this problem more directly than client-therapist sessions.

Often, problems may seem resolved in the office of a therapist or counselor, which is itself socially isolated, but they return when the troubled person returns to a social setting, such as the classroom. Because teachers are not mental health specialists, they need the help of such specialists—perhaps as part of an in-service education program—in promoting positive mental health in the classroom.

Counselors or other specialists should be ready to suggest to the teacher classroom projects or activities that will build self-confidence in students in the classroom setting. These experts should be willing to accept an invitation by a teacher to sit in on classes to gain further insight into the children and into special problems in the school. With such insight, they are better able to help the teacher understand why children are disruptive or fail to perform specific tasks.

Teachers should avoid stereotyping fatherless or motherless children as disturbed or in need of special attention.

Only with such help can a teacher be expected to focus on the strengths of a child that are so often overlooked or underestimated.

In some instances, schools may wish to form special classes for troubled children, and counselors may be used for personal consultation with these students. But by no means should schools and teachers depend exclusively on these measures. Practicing mental hygiene in the classroom can have nothing but a beneficial effect on everyone, but it is only feasible if a school system as a whole adopts and supports the concept.

An essential part of school system support is a school counselor who is ready to trace a child's problems to their source. In many cases, problems affecting a child's learning capabilities can be overcome through the efforts of a counselor who acts as a liaison with public agencies.

In an article in the *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, a community center director, Emanuel Hallowitz, relates a case of such a school counselor, who was wise enough to recognize that the school and home life of a child cannot be independent of each other. The counselor referred the problems of a divorced mother whose son was doing poorly in school to a community center, which helped straighten out welfare, child support, and housing problems plaguing the young woman. Consequently, the mother was able to concentrate more on the problems her son was having in school.

Teachers, of course, can deal with some disruptive behavior without the help of mental health specialists. They should remember not to encourage disruptive behavior, which is often what they do by continually feeding the disruptive child's call for attention with reactions like "Quiet down, Johnny" or "Come here, Johnny." The child who discovers that attentive reactions result from disruptive action continues to act in a negative manner.

Many one-parent families are models of close-knit unity, which, in some cases, is a positive reaction to the one-parent situation

An alternative reaction is to move the disruptive child among those who take an active interest in learning. Pressure from the surrounding children may take care of much of the disruptive behavior. Of course, teachers should move the disruptive child by saying something like "Johnny, please change your seat to the third seat in the fourth row" or "Johnny, please sit with Group 2 from now on." To tell Johnny to go sit with the good boys and girls will probably be translated by Johnny as "go sit next to the sissies."

It is the aggressive boy's equation of schoolwork with femininity (i.e., sissiness) that makes him repulsed by the thought of cooperating in class. This is particularly significant when dealing with fatherless boys.

Henry Biller, who has studied the effects of paternal deprivation, notes that lower-class boys without fathers have not had the chance to see their fathers doing intellectual tasks which would encourage the idea that learning and masculinity are compatible. Because their mothers are likely to be too busy to encourage learning, intellectual tasks are often cast aside as feminine.

Unwittingly, teachers may find themselves promoting this idea, too. In trying to maintain classroom order, they may encourage and reward submissive or passive behavior, which many children, in turn, view as feminine. This, coupled with the fact that the majority of teachers in the early grades of schools are women, explains why Biller refers to the classroom as the "feminized classroom."

The femininity of the classroom atmosphere in the lower elementary grades may partially explain the fact that boys from middle-income female-headed families who receive strong maternal influence do better academically and behave better in school than boys from low-income female-headed families.

A submissive classroom atmosphere is, however, damaging to all children. First of all, it turns off the boys—especially the fatherless children of low-income families—who wish to assert masculinity. Second, those boys and girls who do submit to the atmosphere may lose out in the long run by never learning to function in any manner but a passive one. Such children may never be leaders, and more tragically, they may have trouble leading and directing their own lives.

Clearly, what is called for is a classroom atmosphere that will allow children to learn how to assert themselves constructively.

Teachers can take advantage of children's assertiveness by allowing them to take the initiative in learning activities. The only way many students will participate, however, is if the teacher makes a special effort to demonstrate that learning experiences and related tasks are not strictly feminine activities.

In *Paternal Deprivation,* Biller notes one effective method of doing this. He points to improvement in the schoolwork of boys whose therapists clearly exhibited athletic as well as reading skill.

Such "therapists" are probably more available in the school setting than teachers realize. Young men who are members of Future Teachers of America chapters in local high schools could possibly fill the bill. Also, physical education teachers and coaches and male parent volunteers can play the role of "therapist" for some youngsters.

They can talk about their work and relate how learning is involved in their careers.

Of course, teachers will do girls a disservice if they lead them to believe that learning, especially learning that is geared toward a career, is solely a masculine activity. Teachers should not pass on machismo values to schoolchildren but give them a clear concept that learning does not detract from masculinity *or* femininity.

The problem of the particularly passive or withdrawn boy or girl is a sensitive and complicated one. This is why teachers must insist on professional guidance from a school counselor or a local mental health team on how to combine mental hygiene with the regular teaching regimen.

When teachers receive the support they need to deal with children with problems, they may begin to hope for other programs to help these youngsters, such as a parent education program. Night courses in child rearing and child development could be made available to parents, giving them a chance to express their worries and anxieties about raising a child. This would be particularly important to the single parent. Hopefully, with school system support, single parents won't have to go it alone and neither will teachers. □

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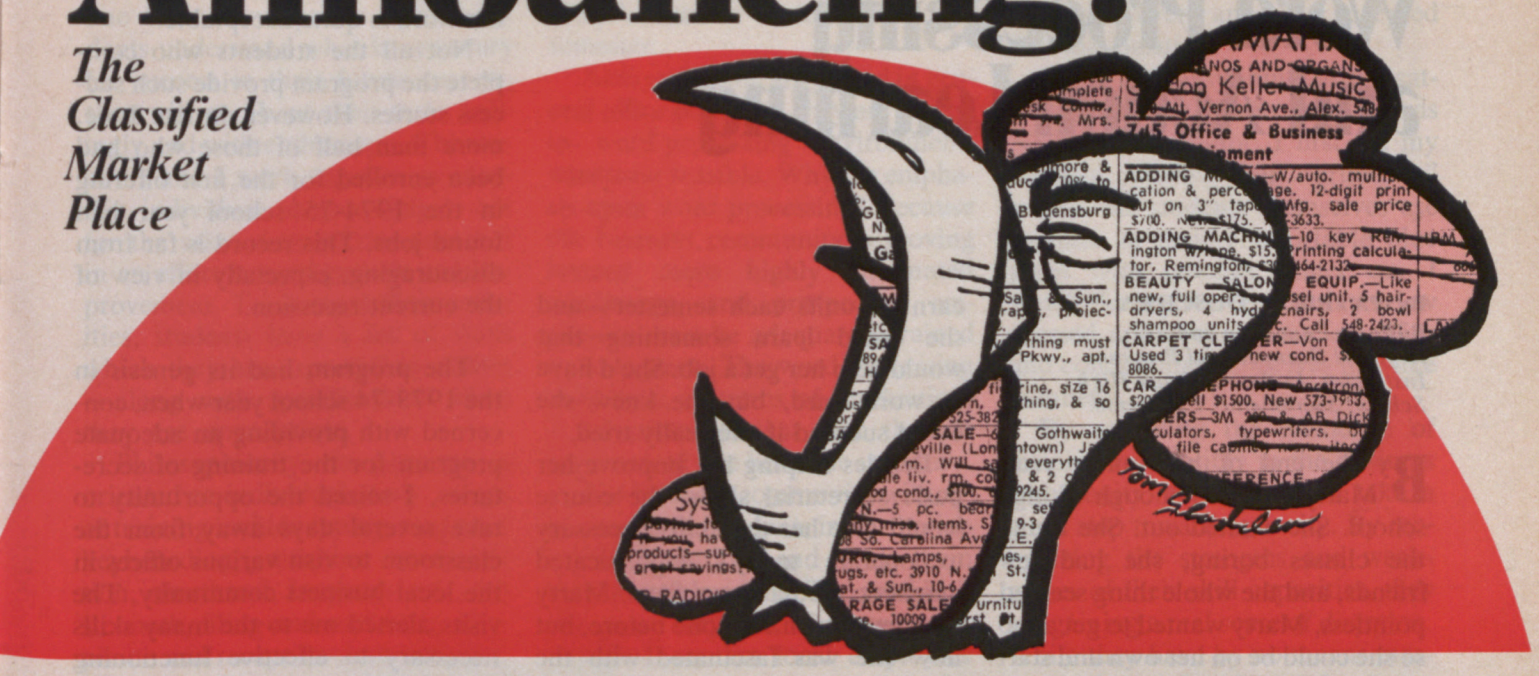

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Word Processing and Action Learning

By **PATRICIA DUSCHKA**
Business Education and Regional Occupational Program Instructor, Luther Burbank High School, Sacramento, California.

By the end of her junior year, Marty had had enough of high school. She wanted out. She found the classes boring, she had few friends, and the whole thing seemed pointless. Marty wanted to get a job so she could be on her own and start putting her life in order.

She had a problem, however, and it was by no means small: She didn't possess a single marketable job skill. True, she'd had a year of typing and one of shorthand, but she hadn't really tried very hard in either class. In any case, the minimal instruction wasn't sufficient to open any doors for her—especially since she didn't have a diploma or any job experience.

Heading resentfully into her last year of high school, Marty decided to ask about a new action-learning program that was being offered to provide a bridge between the classroom and the outside world of work. "What do I have to lose by asking?" she reasoned. Billed as Secretary/Steno, the two-semester program promised instruction in word processing which, she learned, is a more efficient way of processing paperwork through the use of automated equipment. The program's overall objective was that of preparing graduates for immediate job placement.

What Marty discovered gave her the motivation she needed. She would have to devote three hours daily to the program, but she could earn 15 units each semester—and she could learn something that would help her get a job. She'd have to work hard, but she knew she could succeed if she really tried.

Besides helping her improve her basic secretarial skills, the course would give her the skills necessary to operate today's sophisticated magnetic media typewriters. Marty had never even seen one before, but now she was fascinated with the possibility of operating one. In addition, she could improve the essential skills of language arts and basic math; skills which she, for whatever reason, had not adequately mastered. Furthermore, during the second semester she would be placed in an office in the "real world" for unsalaried on-the-job training.

At last, Marty could see some purpose in completing her high school education. Not only would she receive a diploma, but she would have a marketable job skill. She would also know how to apply for a job and how to prepare for an interview. And when that inevitable and all-important question arose, Marty could answer confidently that she had had on-the-job experience.

On successful completion of the program, she would receive a certificate and a sheet outlining the skills she had mastered. These she could carry with her as she went about looking for a job.

Marty enrolled in the course and did surprisingly well. She remained in school and obtained her diploma. She didn't stay long on her first job, but she soon found another one where opportunities for the future look good. Her employers report that she is conscientious and that her work is quite acceptable.

Not all the students who complete the program provide such success stories. However, in late June, more than half of those who had been enrolled for the first offering in the 1974-75 school year had found jobs. This record is far from discouraging, especially in view of the current recession.

The program had its genesis in the 1973-74 school year when, concerned with providing an adequate program for the training of secretaries, I seized the opportunity to take several days away from the classroom to visit various offices in the local business community. The visits alerted me to the many skills necessary to effective functioning in today's modern offices. I also discovered the specific areas in which employers feel prospective employees are often deficient.

After much toil and planning, the new action-learning program emerged. Funded in part through the state government's Regional Occupational Program, it provides training for up to 25 students per semester. Enrollment is open to eligible senior students from the various high schools within the Sacramento City Unified School District as well as to students from nearby high schools outside the district. The prerequisites are one year of shorthand and the ability to type 40 words per minute. During the 1974-75 school year, students from six high schools were enrolled, and currently there is a waiting list for admission to the program.

Because it is important for students to learn in an atmosphere of reality, the classroom, with its carpeted floor, posture chairs, and wood-grained desks, resembles a modern office. The equipment, which is typical of that found in today's business office, includes transcribing machines, electric typewriters (including executive models), magnetic tape and magnetic

card word-processing equipment, and a memory typewriter.

The curriculum is built around one basic assumption: If the students understand what is necessary for success in their future careers, they will go about their tasks willingly and with enthusiasm. The students and I work together to identify individual shortcomings—not for the sake of embarrassment but in an effort toward growth and improvement. To channel their activities, students have a list of skills which they are expected to master —along with specifications when they are appropriate.

Philosophically, the program is oriented to individual study. Areas of training include typing, magnetic keyboarding, machine transcription, shorthand, language arts, basic math, filing and retrieving, telephone and reception-desk manners, personal grooming and dress, and interpersonal relationships.

Obviously, students cannot all reach the same levels of proficiency. Thus, depending upon their capabilities and interests, they are placed in a variety of settings for their on-the-job training during the second semester.

Although some are placed in general office positions, they are placed in word-processing environments whenever feasible. Why the emphasis upon word processing? Because the business community is moving toward more highly automated equipment, and prospective employees must be adequately trained to keep pace. The word-processing technique, in terms of production, is far more efficient than the old approach of one boss-one secretary.

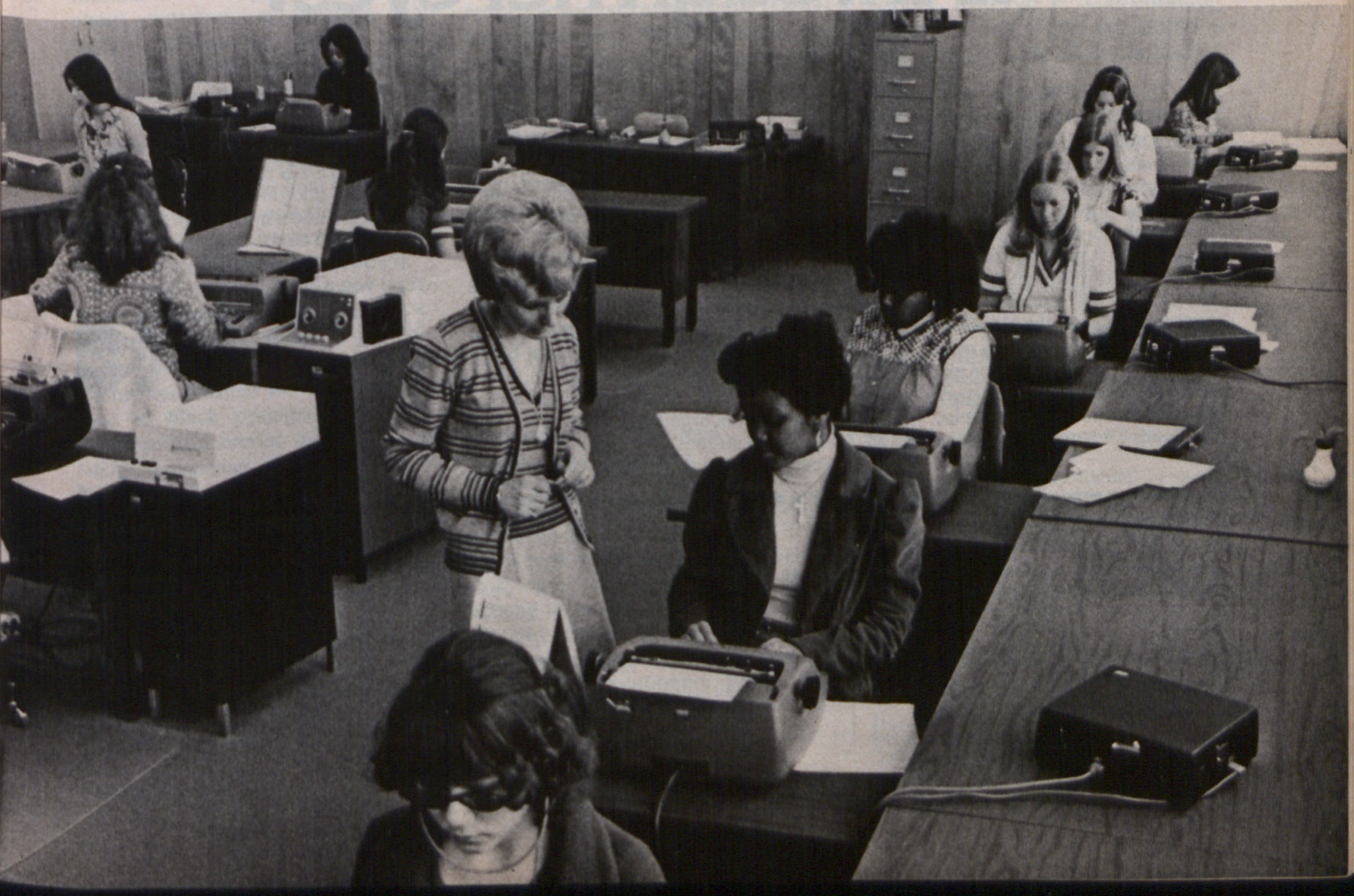
The business community willingly accepts the students in on-the-job training positions and treats them as responsible adults. The road isn't always an easy one, of course, even though I contact local employers and make arrangements for the training sites.

I recall one girl in particular who was so shy and frightened about going out for an interview that I wanted to get on the bus and go with her. She went ahead on her own, however, and was accepted for the position.

That, in reality, hints at the satisfaction which this program affords me as an instructor. I first see my students wearing their "grubbies," a term the students themselves use to refer to their comfortable blue jeans with patches. Later on, I watch them go out for an interview dressed appropriately for an office and conducting themselves in a like manner.

By accepting the challenge of training responsibly in the business community, these students take a giant step toward maturity. By recognizing the strengths and weaknesses of their skill capacities, they are gaining a real sense of direction. While they have by no means mastered all there is to learn, they have, indeed, experienced the sweet smell of success by means of action learning. □

The classroom, with its carpeted floor, posture chairs, and wood-grained desks, resembles a modern office.



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Ever since the invention of the blackboard, teachers have realized that showing something to a student is usually more effective than just talking about it. There is growing evidence that photography is a powerful aid to learning; educators across the country are reporting on its successful use in the classroom.

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TRENDS

Enrollment Drops, Cost of Education Up

The overall enrollment in schools and colleges dropped an estimated one-quarter of 1 percent this fall, and the total cost of education in the country will rise about $11 billion over last school year, according to the U.S. Office of Education.

OE's annual "back to school" forecast revealed that 58.9 million students were probably on hand for the start of the 1975-76 school year compared with 59.1 million actually enrolled in September 1974. Elementary schools had the biggest decline, about 619,000 students.

Expenditures for public and private education at all levels were estimated at $119 billion for this school year, as compared with about $108 billion in 1974-75.

Food Day Set for April 8, 1976

April 8, 1976, will be the second national Food Day, a time to learn about nutrition, agribusiness, and hunger. Schools may feature teach-ins, movies, and other activities to alert students to key problems related to our food supply.

Food Day is sponsored by the Center for Science in the Public Interest. For a free booklet on how to organize activities, write to Food Day, the Center, 1785 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Black Principals Become Victims of Racial Discrimination

Prejudiced school boards have been mainly responsible for the sharp decline in black principalships in 17 Southern and border states, says an NEA spokesman. The number of black principals in the 17 states has dropped from an estimated total of more than 5,000 in 1954, the year of the landmark U.S. Supreme Court desegregation order, to about 3,000 in 1972.

"The North is guilty, too" in respect to black educators, the spokesman points out. For example, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Wisconsin all need at least 80 percent more black principals in order to provide a ratio equal to the percentage of students who are black.

Center on Sex Discrimination in Sports Established in Washington, DC

The Educational and Legal Defense Fund of the Women's Equity Action League (WEAL) has established a national clearinghouse on sex discrimination in sports to serve as a center of current information on the subject. The Center, located in the nation's capital, is collecting information not only about sex discrimination in athletics and physical education programs in schools and colleges but also about the funding of sports programs.

Information may be sent to the WEAL Fund National Clearinghouse on Sex Discrimination in Sports, National Press Building, Washington, DC 20045.

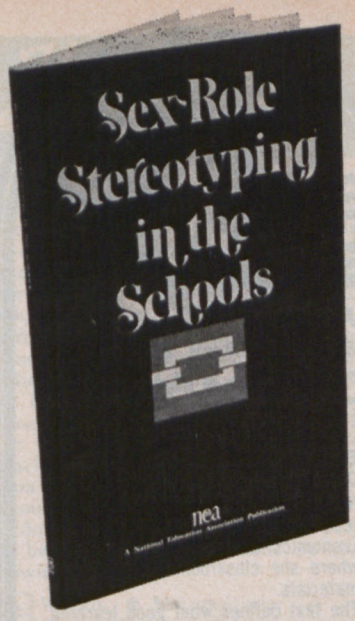
300,000 Get GED Credentials in 1974

After successfully taking the General Educational Development (GED) tests, more than 300,000 persons received high school equivalency credentials in 1974, according to the annual report of the GED Testing Program, administered by the American Council on Education. State level departments of education issued the credentials based on the results of the tests. The report states, however, that "since certain states permit local high schools to issue diplomas based on GED tests, the total number of high school diplomas based on the equivalency examination and issued during 1974 was well above 300,000."

International Bicentennial Conferences Scheduled Throughout 1975-76

Twenty international conferences, which are being held throughout 1975-76 as part of the bicentennial celebration, are bringing scholars from around the world to the United States for an exchange of ideas on the history, culture, and thought of America during its revolutionary period and throughout its first 200 years as a na-

(Continued on page 100)



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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 4

CLASSROOM TIPS

By JANE TYLOR FIELD
Retired Teacher of English and Creative Writing, Hilltop High School, Chula Vista, California.

Mrs. Field urges NEA members to send in interesting and useful teaching ideas on the elementary and secondary level for possible use in future issues. Mail suggestions to Box IE, Today's Education, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

It would seem that one of the things children like best about school is getting out of it—"out of the prison-like classrooms," as one girl put it.

Contrary to that unhappy view, the classroom should not a prison be, of course, but rather the world—or at least a place where all the facets of the world may be examined.

At the Union Park Junior High School in Orlando, Florida, Louis Hoekstra (laid off this year because of budget cuts) brought the world to his students in a pretty literal way. Long a ham radio operator, last fall Mr. Hoekstra combined avocation and profession. To do so, he purchased over a thousand dollars' worth of short-wave radio equipment and installed it in his civics and history classroom.

Mr. Hoekstra's students then were able to take far-flung "field trips" via the ham radio global network. They traveled electronically to Africa, Latin America, Europe, and the Far East, learning about many different cultures and governments.

To be sure of contact with the country being studied, Mr. Hoekstra usually radioed several days ahead of time to find someone who could answer questions about customs, dress, the past, politics, economics, geography, and, not least, citizens' opinions of the United States. When the actual conversation took place, students sat quietly around the set, listening to the answers. If there were a language barrier, usually someone in Mr. Hoekstra's cosmopolitan group could help break it.

In addition to finding out about the history and culture of different countries, students learned something of other languages, of science, and of electronics during these sessions.

Exciting incidents for the class in this two-way exchange included talking to a Portuguese who lives just down the street from where Christopher Columbus is buried in Santo Domingo, speaking with operators in Panama, Colombia, and Nicaragua during lessons on Canal Zone history, and helping to send an SOS message from someone in hurricane-struck Honduras in 1974.

When is music not music? When it's a sport, of course. At least, that's the point made by David Reffkin, former orchestra director of the Virginia, Minnesota, schools (now associated with Baytown, Texas, schools).

Having decided that there are many similarities between group music and athletic activities—practice, teamwork, competition, and entertainment—Mr. Reffkin and the junior and senior orchestras planned a program to illustrate those ideas for their public.

The show was given in the United States Hockey Hall of Fame in Eveleth, Minnesota. The program ("Scorecard") notes stressed the sporting aspects of the compositions: " 'Fancy Fiddlin'—a great warm-up exercise for arms and fingers" and " 'Serbian Peasant Dance'—contains stop action and instant replay."

The hockey connection was starred by a film set to music called "1972 American/Finnish Hockey Players Ballet." Later the audience watched an All-Star Hockey Game movie and had refreshments.

Many variations might be worked on this theme, including a "Victory March" finale. However, music literature dealing with games per se is rather scarce. Perhaps some contemporary composer will note the omission and feel inspired to write a "Suite de Sporte." How about the "Calisthenic Caprice," to be followed by "Syncopated Underwater Blues," a "Football Frolic," and a "Soccer Scherzo"? "Ballade de Baseball" and the "Pole Vaulting Polka" might both feature

the trombone. Throw in "A Loser's Lament" and climax the whole thing with "The Dance of the Decathlon Dervishes"!

Beginning with Plato and the groves of academe, many a teacher has felt that the out-of-doors is a great place for learning, especially about nature. Of course, if a school's out-of-doors is acres of asphalt, Mother Nature may be singing her own version of "The Loser's Lament."

But for those whose schools have lawns or even nearby meadows, Howie Bergesen, teacher of a sixth grade in San Remo Elementary School, Kings' Park, New York, points out that butterflies are free, children need exercise, and chasing insects is fun.

Any insect is more interesting in its prickly, fuzzy, fragile, fluttering reality than as a two-dimensional drawing. But of course, after catching a tiny creature, the discovery of its counterpart on the page of a resource book is equally thrilling.

Mr. Bergesen suggests stressing conservation in collecting projects. One specimen per student of any particular species should be enough.

The equipment needed for pursuit and preservation of the insects can be inexpensive. In fact, the necessities include only a net, a killing jar, some straight pins, and a cardboard box for mounting.

A net can be fashioned from a wire hanger and a woman's stocking or one leg from some discarded panty hose. Bend the hanger into a lollipop shape and sew the opening of the stocking to the circle part. If the stocking is too long, tie a knot where desired and cut off the excess.

Use a widemouthed jar with a screw top for the sad task of killing. In the bottom, put one-and-a-half inches of plaster of Paris mixture and stir with one-half inch of water. After the mixture has dried, pour in enough ethyl acetate or rubbing alcohol to saturate the plaster. Pour off any excess. Now carefully place the victim in the jar and pop on the lid.

(Continued on page 101)

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The Eddie Awards

By STEVE BRODY
English Teacher, Eastchester (New York) Senior High School.

The "Eddie" awards, which are presented annually to educators who have made unique contributions to the field of education, will be given this year to the following:

• John Coates, social studies teacher at Shinnecook Junior High School in Shinnecook, Minnesota, for developing a solution to that school's problem of littering in the cafeteria. Distressed by the unsightly accumulations of rubbish on the cafeteria floor, Mr. Coates went to his principal and received permission to install a basket and backboard above the trash receptacle. The basket immediately became a challenge to students, who had been in the habit of lobbing their empty milk cartons and banana peels in the general direction of the trash receptacle. Since the installation of Mr. Coates's basket, the cafeteria floor has been virtually spotless.

• Agnes Maxwell, third grade teacher at the John Tyler School in East Saugatuck, Maryland, for having invented the Maxwell Silencer. This ingenious device, when affixed to the tip of a piece of chalk, eliminates the nerve-shattering squeaks that have plagued classroom instructors since the advent of the slate blackboard.

• William O'Leary, music coordinator at the Woodrow Wilson High School in Tomahawk, Texas, for designing a band uniform with a music-sheet holder attached to the back. The invention enables marching band members to literally follow the music without missing a step and assures greater fidelity to the original composition. Mr. O'Leary admits that although the contraption may not be suitable for such longer works as "Stars and Stripes Forever," it readily accommodates shorter favorites like "When the Saints Go Marching In."

• Karen Adams, fifth grade teacher at the Carl Sandburg Elementary School in Minocqua, Minnesota, for putting into constructive focus her students' penchant for indulging in shadow displays during the changing of reels. Miss Adams sets aside 15 minutes between reels, during which students are encouraged to compete in a shadow-technique contest, projecting improvised images onto the screen. The idea has become so popular that Miss Adams fears the intermissions will overshadow the films themselves. She reports that the improvisations have reflected a wide range of creativity, from images of a pair of alligators in combat to a boa constrictor swallowing an artichoke.

• Ken Gurian, guidance counselor at the Stissing Mountain Middle School in Weston, Washington, for creating Gum-Chewers Anonymous, an organization that assists youngsters in kicking the chewing-gum habit. Mr. Gurian does not publicize his organization, nor does he actively solicit membership. Rather, he depends upon word-of-mouth advertising to promote his spectacularly successful program (only 12 backsliders out of a total of approximately 600 youngsters). Students who seriously wish to rid themselves of the chewing-gum habit are required to enroll in Mr. Gurian's program for a six-week period. During this time they must practice complete abstinence rather than gradual withdrawal. The critical point in the program occurs the final week, when Mr. Gurian himself stages a furious display of gum-chewing, gum-cracking, and bubble-blowing to test the willpower of his participants. □

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Now Hear This

By HELEN D. HOLMES
Coordinator with Career Education Project, Lincoln (Nebraska) Public Schools; former elementary school teacher.

Two months ago if anyone had asked me to itemize my favorite things in order of preference, I would probably have listed humane, philosophic, idealistic, if not realizable, things like love, brotherhood, my dishwasher, my husband, and so on. However, after teaching 10-year-olds for five weeks, my number-one choice is *silence*. Close behind in number-two spot is *quiet*, and trailing along in third is *no-noise-only-soft-music-played-three-rooms-away-with-all-doors-closed-between-it-and-me*.

After a day at school, I homeward plod my weary way through crosstown traffic. In our town, this doesn't amount to much: a two-minute wait at some traffic signals with perhaps a wait of four minutes at 56th and Holdrege. But only because I doze off at the wheel during a quiet spell at that corner. If someone behind me honks, I'm still too insulated by noise saturation to do more than let go of the steering wheel and clamp both hands over my tender ears.

By the time I reach home, the insulation is gone, and my tolerance to sound is lower than a Nielsen rating for an aspirin ad. My little dog greets me happily, and the feeling is mutual until he rattles thunderously over the tile floor, toenails scratching and screeching horribly.

After hanging up my sweater, I open the fridge and grab a can of beer. While removing a glass from the cupboard, I accidentally bump one nearby, and the reverberating tinkle brings tears to my eyes. Removal of the pop-top opener on the can is a traumatic moment. I've learned that this ear-splitting sound is best muffled under five bathtowels and the electric blanket.

If I'm lucky, no one else in the family is home. I sit down with my drink, stare at the marvelously blank and silent TV screen, and enjoy the absence of the sound of bells, scraping desks, shuffling feet, giggles, jeers, and shrieks.

The sonic boom of the paper hitting the porch catches me with a beer halfway to mouth. Mach 5! Red alert!!! That does it. If you can't lick 'em, join 'em. Turn on the TV for the cant and clatter of afternoon Kiddie Kartoons. Turn on the vacuum for gears to grind and suction to suck. Turn on the electric fry pan for hamburger to sizzle, splutter, and explode like a volcano in full eruption. Absorb the pistol-sharp yapping of the dog. Don't answer the telephone; its incessant ringing adds to the tumult. Listen for the pneumatic-hammer ticks of my watch which add a missing pitch to the audios.

It's the Fourth of July—complete with cherry bombs, three-inch crackers, and off-key brass bands. It's Cape Canaveral on moon launch day!

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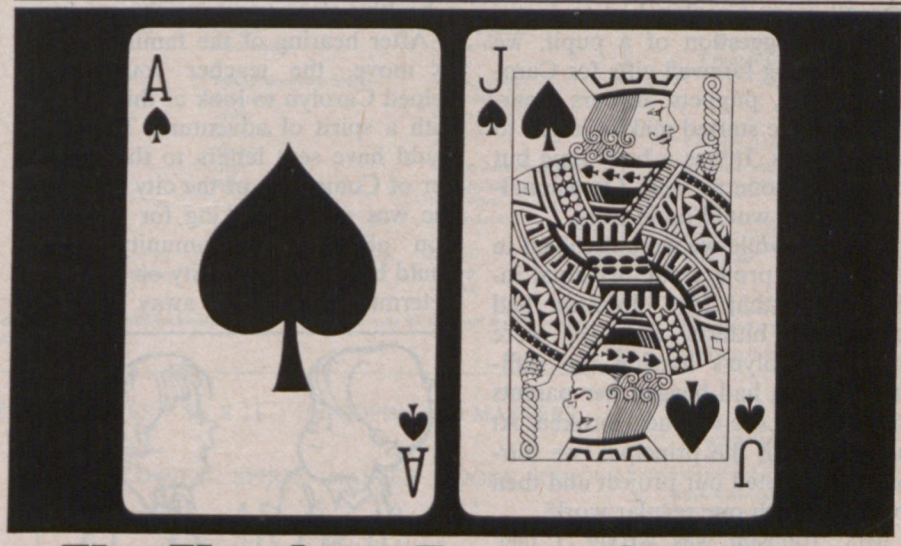

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DILEMMA

Carolyn Moves to Another City

This is the second in a series of articles presenting the handling of problems related to education with reactions by teachers and other consultants whose training and/or experience may enable them to contribute illuminating insights.

Carolyn stuttered. Her mother, Mrs. Johnson, informed me that Carolyn was very shy and that her peers often mocked her. Early in the school year, I sent her on an errand and took the opportunity to ask my fifth graders to be considerate of Carolyn and to encourage her to participate in class discussions.

I was delighted by their attitude. When Carolyn spoke, they were understanding. Sometimes she was timid; sometimes she became disgusted with herself. Still she managed to communicate, and her ideas were well received. I could see her beam when she made an important contribution.

In February, Mrs. Johnson informed me that the family would be moving to another city in April. We were all sorry Carolyn had to leave.

At the suggestion of a pupil, we began making farewell gifts for Carolyn—pictures, puppets, flowers, compositions. She started making a gift to leave with us. It was a busy time but an unhappy one as well. Occasionally, some one would be in tears.

One day while we were involved in our farewell project, the principal informed me that Mrs. Johnson had complained bitterly that we were making Carolyn's leaving too difficult. Carolyn had begged her parents not to move; she was heartbroken. At the request of the principal, we hurriedly completed our project and then continued with our regular work.

Mrs. Johnson was wrong, I feel. Even she admitted that this had been Carolyn's most successful year in school. Furthermore, there were 24 others in addition to Carolyn who would have to adjust to the upcoming separation.

In view of Mrs. Johnson's reaction, how might I have handled this situation better than I did?

Reactors

Initially, the support given Carolyn by the teacher and the class was excellent. The teacher should be commended for her success in making Carolyn feel a part of the group; however, I agree with Mrs. Johnson that the teacher went overboard when she heard about the move.

She should ask herself if her only goal was to prepare Carolyn to become a contributing member of the fifth grade class. If this is so, then she failed the child terribly. Carolyn would spend only a short period of her life with this class under any circumstances, and she must learn to adjust to other groups and other environments.

The idea of having the class give Carolyn gifts was a good one, but they should have been called something other than "farewell gifts." It is understandable that the class would be saddened by Carolyn's leaving, but the fact that someone in the group was usually in tears did not make for a healthy classroom situation.

After hearing of the family's plans to move, the teacher could have helped Carolyn to look at this change with a spirit of adventure. The class could have sent letters to the Chamber of Commerce of the city to which she was moving asking for information about the community. They could have found the city on the map, determined how far away Carolyn would be, and made plans for exchanging letters. Actions such as these would have aided Carolyn in looking forward to her move rather than dreading it.

—Mildred S. Walker, *fifth grade teacher, Irwin Avenue Open School, Charlotte, North Carolina.*

"I can wear out shoes in a week, pants in a day, and my teacher in an hour."

The teacher is to be congratulated in enlisting the assistance of the class in helping Carolyn deal with her earlier problems. Constant peer support is an important aspect when there are emotionally based difficulties. However, both the depth and breadth of peer involvement need constant scrutiny. Children do have a tendency to become very emotionally involved. To counter this, the span of time they give to a situation is by nature quite short. This does not indicate unfeelingness, but a sense of perspective.

The teacher ignored this natural way of dealing with Carolyn's approaching departure. As a teacher, she had a choice of action ranging from "I'm only here to teach academics," to "Poor dear, we know how you're suffering, and we are all going to suffer with you." Unfortunately, the teacher succumbed to, and prolonged, the class's initial emotional reaction.

The teacher can be a valuable guide for her pupils in this kind of situation by providing clues of how to handle disappointment positively. Learning of Carolyn's April departure in February gave her time to help Carolyn look forward to the move, to new friends and experiences. The mutual wallowing in self-pity told Carolyn instead that the move would be threatening and that perhaps she wouldn't be strong enough to handle it. Carolyn's response (her strong resistance to leaving) verifies this feeling.

Children must know that we care, but also that we have confidence in their ability to work through and handle a problem.

—James Kenward, *second grade teacher, Sacramento, California.*

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tion. The National Endowment for the Humanities has awarded grants totaling up to $1,106,458 to institutions and organizations throughout the country in support of the conferences.

In addition to serving as showcases for the recent products of American research in the humanities, the conferences are providing an opportunity for foreign and American scholars to share their ideas and perspectives on issues of mutual interest and concern.

HEW Awards $1.8 Million for Ethnic Studies

The U.S. Office of Education has awarded $1.8 million for ethnic heritage studies programs to 49 public and nonpublic educational agencies, institutions, and organizations in 32 states and the District of Columbia. The projects focus on development and dissemination of curriculum materials and on personnel training.

The program is intended to help promote greater appreciation of our nation's multiethnic society. The purpose is to encourage citizens to learn about the nature of their own cultural heritage and to study the contributions of other ethnic groups to this country.

Men Lead Engineering, Science Fields

In 1974, men held most of the positions in science and engineering fields, according to a nationwide survey conducted for the National Science Foundation by the Bureau of the Census.

In six of the eight fields covered by the survey, men occupied 85 percent or more of the positions. Engineering and environmental science were the fields with the highest proportions of men—99 and 97 percent respectively. The two fields with lowest proportions of men were psychology (about 72 percent male) and social science (about 79 percent).

Historians Cite Crisis in Teaching of History in U.S. Schools and Colleges

Current events and specialized courses such as ethnic studies are replacing history courses in many high schools and colleges, and many teacher training courses do not place adequate emphasis on history, according to a report by the Organization of American Historians. Therefore, the teaching of history in secondary schools and colleges is in crisis, says the report.

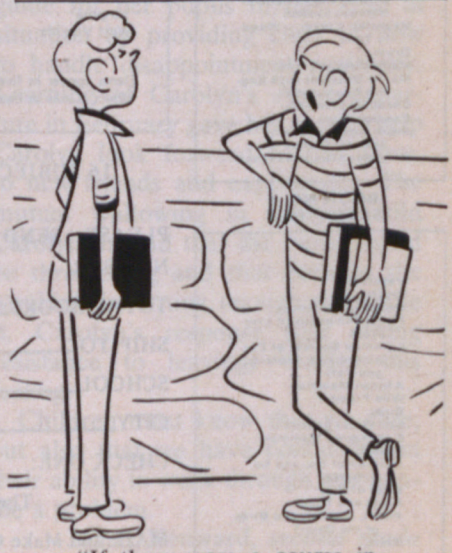
Football Players Suffer "Needless Deaths"

James P. Knochel, MD, says football players die needlessly during summer practice as a result of heat stroke. In a recent issue of the *Journal of the American Medical Association,* he claims that heat stroke "ranks second among reported causes of death in high school athletes," just behind spinal injuries.

Coaches should know how heat stroke kills players, so that needless deaths need not occur, says Dr. Knochel.

"Mini" Baby Boom Predicted

The country is likely to experience a "mini" baby boom because many women in their late 20's and early 30's who have delayed childbearing will begin to have babies within the next few years, according to a team of California researchers. Their report, "The American Birth Rate: Evidences of a Coming Rise" (*Science,* August 29, 1975), cites demographic statistics for California to make this case.



"If there were a course in forgetting, I'd be a natural."

Classroom Tips
(Continued)

Post mortem, mount the delicate corpse on top of the cardboard box by inserting a straight pin through its thorax into the cardboard. Place strips of paper or some microscope slides over its wings to prevent their curling.

In two or three days, after the specimen has dried out, the student should remove it from the drying box to a display case, together with a card of identifying data that he or she has prepared.

Hopefully, children who have such vivid experiences will come into the ecological battle on Mother Nature's side.

The occult is very much with us these days, though not as much as in Puritan times. One gifted bunch of high school juniors read Hawthorne's *The Scarlet Letter* and noted especially its foreshadowing of the Salem witch trials and its spooky interpretation of natural phenomena. When the students discovered that one of them was a practicing medium in her off-school hours, they decided to have a séance right in the middle of the day.

After drawing the curtains and pushing aside the chairs, they sat on the floor around a mystic candle, closed their eyes, and concentrated on the medium's efforts to conjure up none other than Nathaniel himself.

Whether he came or not, who's to say? At any rate, the participants attained some feeling of how people have, and can still, become involved in the hysteria of the supernatural.

If the high cost of everything has eliminated art materials for your class, look around town for free paintables. Shirlye Greer of St. Mary's Marks School in Madison, Illinois, did just that. With permission from the city fathers, she then led her students, paints in hand, to the blah fire hydrants. Now those hydrants are bright and cheerful personalities: Donald Ducks and Snoopies and priests—and even fire fighters. Very positive evidence of many good things: economy, creativity, and school/community cooperation. □

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In the
Twentieth Century

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The Word of God, the same "seed" which produced Christians in the first century, will produce Christians today (Luke 8:11; 1 Peter 1:23). Other seed or corrupted seed will not produce pure Christianity. Christ's church exists today wherever people follow the New Testament.

The churches of Christ urge a return to New Testament Christianity. Abandoning the corrupted seed of the traditions of men, man-made creeds, and denominational organizations, they stress the way of salvation delivered by Christ and his apostles. They teach the new birth of water and the Spirit (John 3:5), baptizing penitent believers for remission of sins and a new life (Acts 2:38; Romans 6:1-6).

Yes, it is possible to reproduce first century Christianity in the twentieth century. Only by a complete return to the teaching of the Scriptures, however, can we truly have "one Lord, one faith, one baptism" (Ephesians 4:4,5). Open your New Testament and follow its teaching. You can be just a Christian like Peter, Paul, the Eunuch, Priscilla, and others were 1,900 years ago.

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Bicentennial Plays and Programs. Collection of royalty-free half-hour plays, playlets, recitations, spelldowns, choral readings, and poems. For young people of all ages. 1975. 160 pp. $2.95. (Postage will be paid on all orders accompanied by payment.) Plays, Inc., 8 Arlington St., Boston, MA 02116.

U.S. Constitution. Graphic print bearing Bicentennial symbol on parchtone paper. 24 x 36 inches. Single introductory copy, $2. Document House, Box 858, Solvang, CA 93463.

Career Education

Careers in Agronomy, Crop Science, Soil Science. A brochure that gives details about these closely interrelated disciplines and discusses the advantages of careers in any one of the three. 1975. Single copies available free; additional copies (up to 100), 25¢ each. 24 pp. American Society of Agronomy, 677 S. Segoe Rd., Madison WI 53711.

Career Choices—Working Toward a Better Environment. Tells about a range of specialized careers devoted to the promotion and restoration of our environment. Revised 1975. Free. 14 pp. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 401 M St., S.W., Washington, DC 20460.

Careers in Wildlife Conservation. Contains articles on the stimulating outdoor careers of wildlife biologist, wildlife manager, conservation officer, conservation aide, wildlife administrator, and information education specialist. 1974. Single copies free; additional copies, 15¢ each. 36 pp. Olin Corporation, Winchester-Western Division, Conservation Dept., East Alton, IL 62024.

Landscape Architecture, A Career. Discusses aptitude, school preparation, job training, how professional landscape architects work, and where they are needed. Revised 1975. Single copies free; additional copies, 6¢ each. 7 pp. American Society of Landscape Architects, 1750 Old Meadow Rd., McLean, Virginia 22101.

Consumer Education

Consumer Information: An Index of Selected Federal Publications of Consumer Interest. Catalogs more than 250 free or low-cost government booklets consumers are interested in. Fall 1975. 16 pp. Free. Consumer Information, Pueblo, CO 81009.

Sheep in America: The Story of Wool and Lamb. Informative illustrated booklet about lamb and sheep and their products and by-products. 14 pp. Free. Wool Education Center, 200 Clayton Street, Denver, CO 80206.

Elementary

Order the following reprints on ecology from *Ranger Rick's Nature Magazine* from Educational Servicing, Natl. Wildlife Federation, 1412 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. Single copies, free; 2-29 copies, 15¢ each; 30-99 copies, 12¢ each.

Air Pollution. 8 pp.

The Best Present of All. On energy. 24 pp.

Pesticides Are Perilous. 8 pp.

Recycling. 8 pp.

Water, What Would You Do Without It? 12 pp.

Order the following for $1.95 each from Instructor Publications, Inc., Dansville, NY 14437:

Arts & Crafts for Slow Learners. No. 379. Rev. ed. 1975. 48 pp.

Classroom Activity Cards: How To Make, How To Use. No. 312. 1975. 48 pp.

Green Thumb Activities for Classroom Gardeners. No. 311. Rev. ed. 1975. 48 pp.

Making Dioramas and Displays. No. 345. Rev. ed. 1975. 48 pp.

Teaching Linguistics. No. 377. Rev. ed. 1975. 48 pp.

A Better Place To Be: A Guide to Environmental Learning in Your Classroom. Contains more than 100 projects and activities suitable for elementary school children. Published by Johnny Horizon Program of U.S. Dept. of Interior. 1975. 39 pp. $1.25. Stock No. 024-000-00805-3. Cat. No. I1.77/2:C57. Supt. of Documents, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

Pack-o-Fun. A scrap-craft magazine. Published monthly during school year. Single copy, 60¢; subscription, $6 per year. Pack-o-Fun, 14 Main St., Park Ridge, IL 60068.

Spotlight on Metric Education. Guide to help educators relate metric education to the elementary classroom. Includes a history of metrics, conversion tables, metric activities, outlines for conducting an in-service workshop. 1975. 64 pp. $1.50. Curriculum Development Council for Southern New Jersey, Glassboro State College, Glassboro, NJ 08028.

Health—Mental Health

Heart Facts. Explains how the cardiovascular system works and discusses its major diseases, their early warning signs, and what to do about them. Gives advice on prevention and emergency treatment. Contains statistical charts and a glossary of heart terms. 1975. 28 pp. Free. Write to your state or local American Heart Assoc.

Minorities

The Educational Needs of Minority Groups. Takes a look at the American dream of equal opportunity in education through the eyes of three scholars who are members of separate ethnic groups. 1974. 112 pp. $2.25. Professional Educators Publications, Inc., P.O. Box 80728, Lincoln, NE 68501.

The Image of Pluralism in American Literature: The American Experience of European Ethnic Groups. An annotated bibliography listing more than 400 literary works of 11 white ethnic groups. 1974. 73 pp. $1.50. The Institute on Pluralism and Group Identity, 165 E. 56 St., New York 10022.

Minorities and the Media. 1974. 30 pp. Free. Ford Foundation, Office of Reports, 320 E. 43 St., New York 10017.

Selected Films for Bilingual-Multicultural Education. Illustrated catalog. Available in both a Spanish version and an English one. 1975. 40 pp. Free. Learning Corp. of America, 1350 Avenue of the Americas, New York 10019.

Nutrition

Facts About Nutrition. 1974. 28 pp. 75¢. Stock No. 1740-00366. Cat. No. HE 20.3302:N 95. Supt. of Documents, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

From the Earth to Your Table: An Activity Master Program About the Economics of Food. For use with high school students. Covers food production, processing, and distribution. Masters good for at least 200 copies. 1975. Free. From the Earth to Your Table, U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Box 385, Vandalia, OH 45377.

Nutrition Scoreboard Poster. Four-color poster composed of charts giving a numerical rating of the relative nutritional values of many common foods and a group of nondairy beverages. 1974. $1.75; $1 each additional poster. Center for Science in the Public Interest, 1779 Church St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Reading

Books for Young People. Graded catalog for preschool through grade 12. 1975. 94 pp. Free. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Junior Book Division, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York 10020.

Children's Books 1974: A List of Books for Pre-School Through Junior

(Continued on page 104)

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High School Age. Intended to aid both school and public librarians in selecting fiction and nonfiction considered useful and enjoyable for children. Published by Library of Congress. 1975. 16 pp. 40¢. Stock No. 030-001-00062. Cat. No. LC 2.11:974. Supt. of Documents, Govt. Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

Children's Books of the Year 1974. Listings for children from nursery years through age 13. 1975. 48 pp. Child Study Assn. of America, Wel-Met Inc., 50 Madison Ave., New York 10010.

Sprint Magazine. A reading magazine for fourth, fifth, and sixth graders reading at levels as low as 2.0. Single copy, 50¢; Teacher's Edition, $1. Set of 14, $5 per subscription for 1 to 9 subscriptions; Teacher's Edition, $5. $2 per subscription for 10 or more to the same address (includes Teacher's Edition). Scholastic Reading Center, 902 Sylvan Ave., Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632.

Order the following from the Intl. Reading Assn., 800 Barksdale Rd., Newark, DE 19711:

Syntax and Readability. 1975. 47 pp. $3.

Teaching Reading Skills Through the Newspaper. Ideas for elementary and secondary teachers. 1971. 50 pp. $2.

World Traveler. High-interest full-color magazine for "slow readers." For sample copy and subscription information, send 25¢ to P.O. Box 3618, Washington, DC 20007.

Social Studies

Arms Control and Disarmament Agreements: Texts and History of Negotiations. February 1975. 159 pp. $1.80. Stock No. 044-000-01565. Cat. No. AC 1.2:AR 5/3/975. Supt. of Documents, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

Economic Education Experiences of Enterprising Teachers. Vol. 12. Thirty-nine award-winning classroom experiences in teaching economics used by teachers at the primary, intermediate, junior and senior high school, and college levels. 1975. 118 pp. $2. Joint Council on Economic Education, 1212 Avenue of the Americas, New York 10036.

Equal Justice Under Law: The Supreme Court in American Life. Presents a history of the Supreme Court, 30 landmark cases, and a description of the Court today and of the federal court system. Profusely illustrated in black and white and full color. Includes pictures of the 100 Justices of history. Revised 1975. 152 pp. $2 plus 50¢ for mailing. Federal Bar Building,

Washington, DC 20006.

Population Bulletin: Literacy and World Population. Vol. 30, No. 2. 29 pp. 75¢. Population Reference Bureau, Inc., 1754 N St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Study and Action Pack for World Development. Looks at major crises of our times—food, population, unemployment, violence, and the environment—not as self-contained problems but as different facets of the fundamental problem of world development. Contains posters, postcards, wall charts, fliers, a special magazine on the new economic order, and a newspaper that profiles more than 150 world-development actions and campaigns throughout the industrialized world. 1975. $2. U.N.D.P. Information Division, United Nations, New York 10017.

Teachers and Teaching

Alternative Schools: The Development of Options in Public Education. 1974. 83 pp. $1.75. Professional Educators Publications, Inc., Box 80728, Lincoln, NE 68501.

Order the following 16 titles for $8 ($6 for Phi Delta Kappa members) from Phi Delta Kappa, 8th and Union, Box 789, Bloomington, IN 47401. Order any six for $3 ($2 for members). Payment must accompany all orders for less than $5 or add $1 for handling.

The Battle of the Books: Kanawha County. 1975. 34 pp.

The Community as Textbook. 1975. 30 pp.

The Computer in the School. 1975. 42 pp.

Equity in School Financing: District Power Equalizing. 1975. 34 pp.

Equity in School Financing: Full State Funding. 1975. 30 pp.

The Legal Rights of Students. 1975. 46 pp.

Oikos. The Environmental and Education. 1975. 54 pp.

The People and Their Schools: Community Participation. 1975. 38 pp.

Planning the Rest of Your Life. 1975. 28 pp.

The Pros and Cons of Ability Grouping. 1975. 30 pp.

School Volunteers: Who Needs Them? 1975. 45 pp.

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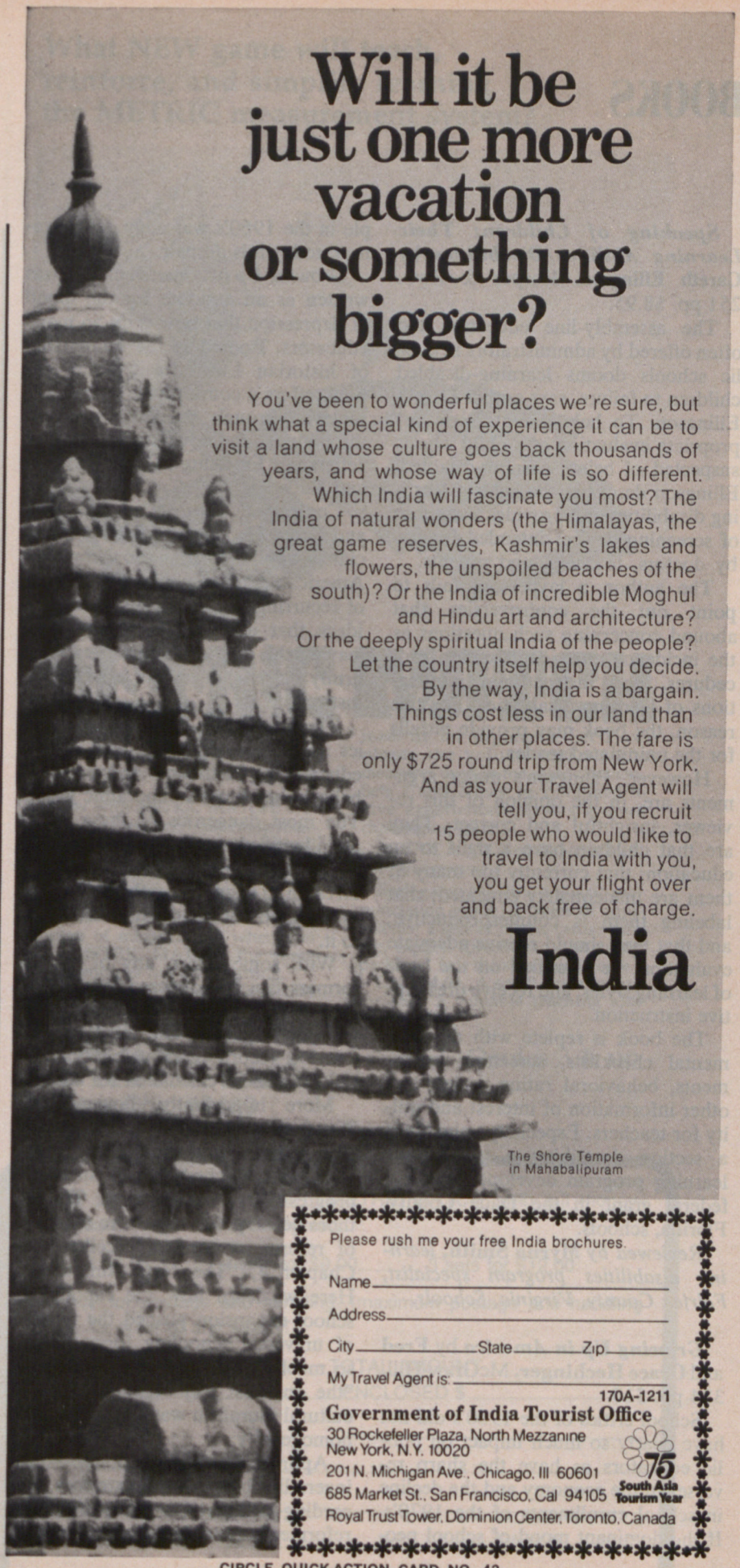
See "New NEA Materials" on page 109.



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BOOKS

Speaking of Children: Their Learning Abilities/Disabilities by **Careth Ellingson.** Harper & Row. 251 pp. $8.95.

The assembly-line education too often offered by administrators in public schools dooms learning-disabled children to failure, says author Careth Ellingson. To help parents seek appropriate evaluation of a child who is suspected of being learning-disabled, Ellingson describes the field of learning disabilities and provides a number of screening devices intended for use by doctors, teachers, and parents.

The author, a layperson, fails to point out the controversies that abound concerning such questions as the incidence rate, identification procedures, and instructional implications of learning disabilities. For this reason, the book may provide pitfalls for the uninitiated reader.

However, Ellingson's major arguments are, in the opinion of this reviewer, insightful and correct. They are that children have a right to an education; that currently too many of them are inadequately educated; that labeling them is counterproductive; and that they should receive adequate evaluation, be classified on the basis of learning styles, and receive prescriptive instruction.

The book is replete with developmental checklists, screening instruments, behavioral rating scales, and other information of interest and utility for teachers. Especially valuable is a section describing a prescriptive learning program developed under a federal grant in the Dade County, Florida, schools.

Reviewed by **Myrna Smith,** *learning disabilities program specialist, Fairfax County, Virginia, Schools.*

Growing Up in America by **Fred** and **Grace Hechinger.** McGraw-Hill. 324 pp. $10.

School critics of the 1960's did not have nearly so much impact on public educators as have the sharp reverses in the economy and the decline in school enrollments of the 1970's. If the dominant mood of school people in the 1960's was edgy defensiveness, today it is despair.

Growing Up in America clearly was written as an antidote for the mood of depression that now grips so many educators. Rooted in the scholarship of historian Lawrence Cremin, the book offers a comfortable pathway to renewal through the exploration of the political and educational ideals of Jefferson, Franklin, Mann, Dewey, and Eliot.

Contrary to their stated aim, Fred and Grace Hechinger do adopt a special viewpoint, offering the theory that American educational history consists of recurring and opposing events and ideas that inexplicably balance out, leaving the nation's ideals even more firmly entrenched in our educational institutions.

The Hechingers hold that most critics train telescopes on part of the educational landscape and come to believe they have a panoramic vision. The most dangerous of these critics are identified as the revisionist New Left who, in their role as doomsayers, threaten to dismantle public schooling rather than entrust the task of reform to it.

With some effort, any of the reformers can be squeezed into one of the two categories that the Hechingers use—the Organizer and the Romantic—and a record of contributions and failures can be calculated for each.

More importantly, however, no matter who introduced them, reforms that initially liberated often turned rigid and blocked the prospect for progress in subsequent eras. The authors develop this regressive tendency of reform movements excellently in Chapter 4, "The New Americans." Here we learn how the captains of school expansion pushed the frontier of universal schooling forward with so much devotion to the principle of "the one best way" that the ideal of cultural pluralism was lost to coercive homogeneity.

Appropriate reform for the Hechingers lies between the extremes. According to them, Conant is the model reformer because he brought rationality to school debates by neutralizing the extremists. For instance, in his proposal for comprehensive high schools, Conant integrated the demands for open democratic education with quality controls.

The reform mode the authors propose incorporates the liberal impulse for justice and the conservative concern for established institutions, although, unfortunately, *Growing Up in America* often tips toward conservatism. Hopefully, the debate this stimulating book undoubtedly will generate will bring the kind of balance to educational reform that the authors advocate.

Reviewed by **James J. Shields,** *professor, School of Education, City College, City University of New York.*

The Enduring Effects of Education by **Herbert H. Hyman, Charles R. Wright,** and **John Shelton Reed.** University of Chicago Press. 344 pp. $12.50.

Public opinion polls of American adults over the past 28 years have contained questions that show the extent to which respondents have mastered and updated their knowledge of facts in a variety of subjects (history, geography, sciences, humanities). These polls also have identified the respondents' status according to several achievement-related personal characteristics (highest level of education completed, age, sex, current social position, social-class origins, residential origins, ethnicity, and religion).

The authors of this book have compiled data from these national opinion polls to review the percentages of adults answering each selected question correctly when the respondents are grouped by age, highest level of education completed, and at least one of the other achievement-related variables. The questions pertaining to subject areas normally included in formal instruction were categorized separately from those that people would normally learn after leaving formal instruction if they had the interest and ability to do so.

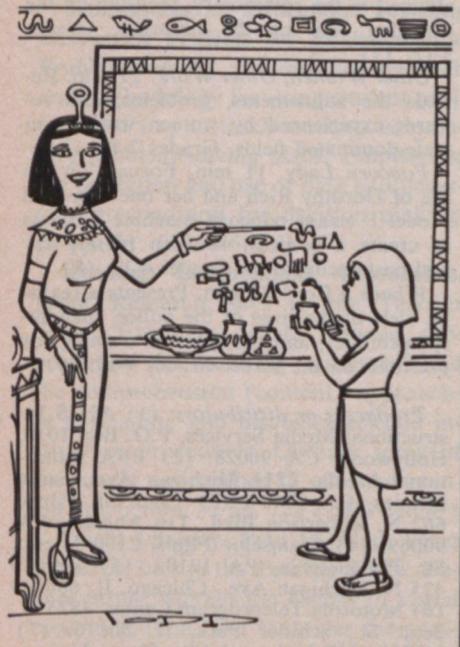
The comparisons show that in both

categories of achievement questions, the percent of correct answers rose with each increase in the level of education completed by the respondent (elementary school, high school, college). This effect of education occurs in each of the content areas, and it applies to respondents when they are grouped by each of the achievement-related variables.

In addition to providing an authoritative source of reassurance that schooling *does* make a difference in the amount and complexity of knowledge acquired by persons throughout their lives, this book provides a variety of potential test items with "adult norms" that may be useful to teachers interested in evaluating the level of mastery exhibited by their own students.

This exemplary research report will help the educator in understanding the significance of its findings within the full array of studies relating to assessment of achievement as well as in developing an increased appreciation for the research process.

Reviewed by **William S. Graybeal,** *NEA Research.* □



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A Boy, a Rope, and a Truth

Twelve years had passed since I'd seen Johnnie Romero, a Mexican American who had been a student of mine. I recognized him the minute he sat next to me at a meeting. When the meeting was over, Johnnie and I reminisced for a while, and then he traced his steps from junior high school and high school to college, marriage and family, and finally a teaching career. I was elated but not surprised at his success, for as a student he had worked hard and well. When he was in my class, he once did a small thing that moved me so greatly I will never forget it.

I was testing my ninth grade physical education class on rope climbing. Being given three attempts, each boy was to climb from a standing start to a point 15 feet high, negotiate this distance in as few seconds as possible, and touch the board at the 15-foot height. The school record, which had stood for three years, was 2.1 seconds.

For two years, Johnnie Romero had trained for, pointed toward, and, I suspect, dreamed of breaking this record. Holding the school record would have elevated him to a high status with his peers that he might otherwise never have gained.

On his first attempt, Johnnie tied the school record. His classmates cheered and urged him to try harder. The second time he tried, Johnnie set a new record—2.0 seconds flat! As he descended the rope, the entire class gathered around to congratulate him. However, Johnnie was in a somber mood. "I didn't make it, Coach," he said. "I didn't touch the board."

No one could have seen if Johnnie had missed the board. He was so very, very close—not more than a fraction of an inch away—and only he knew the truth. I said to the class, "Johnnie has not set a record in the rope climb. No, he has set a much finer record, a real genuine record for you and me and everyone to strive for. He has told the simple truth. This is a record many athletes never attain."

When Johnnie made his last attempt, a strange stillness came over the gymnasium. Fifty boys and I were breathlessly set to help boost Johnnie Romero to a new record. He climbed the rope in 1.9 seconds, touched the board, and set a new school and city (and perhaps even national) record for a junior high school class.

Having been a coach for more than 30 years, I know well the pressures that are sometimes placed on athletes to do an outstanding job. Many times the one major objective is winning. Unfortunately, this pressure sometimes causes students to sacrifice their integrity in order to obtain a goal. Johnnie's truthfulness in my gym class that day might have seemed unexceptional were it not for my awareness of the ease with which he could have cheated, the importance to him of holding the school record, and most of all, the positive effect his decision to be truthful had on him and his classmates.

—Elam R. Hill, *Physical Education Department Chairman and Coach, Tioga Junior High School, Fresno, California.*

"She's got me so well adjusted that all the kids are wondering what's wrong with me."

AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS

The following 16mm sound/color films are recommended by William Cuttill, Indiana University, Audiovisual Center, as representative of those available for use in developing an understanding of various career choices and their responsibilities and in developing an awareness of the changing roles of men and women in certain career fields. Further information about these films and their availability can be obtained from the producers/distributors indicated by the numbers after each listing.

Career Opportunities in Retailing. 18 min. Examines a variety of careers connected with the operation of a large chain store, including store managers, department managers, commercial buyers, and laboratory technicians. Grades 7-12. (1)

The Craftsman. 7 min. Satirizes, through animation, people's anonymous role in mass production and depicts the consequences of becoming depersonalized in a job. Grades 4-12. (2)

Intern a Long Year. 19 min. Characterizes the responsibilities of the medical intern by focusing upon the experiences of Karin Mack as she makes her rounds at a hospital in Philadelphia. Grades 9-12. (5)

Is a Career in Management for You? 15 min. Surveys many career areas in which managers are employed, discussing their education, training, qualifications, and rewards and advancement. Suggests how students may enter the management field. Grades 7-12. (4)

The New Librarian. 14 min. Examines the new and creative role the library has attained in the community, focusing on the changing role of the librarian. Grades 9-12. (7)

Other Women, Other Work. 21 min. Reveals the adjustments, problems, and rewards experienced by women working in male-dominated fields. Grades 7-12. (3)

Popcorn Lady. 11 min. Focuses on the life of Dorothy Rich and her one-of-a-kind Model-T steam popcorn machine business to create a contrast between present-day and past occupations. Grades 4-12. (8)

What's a Cop? 26 min. Presents a realistic view of the lives of the police, their responsibilities, and the types of training for positions on the force. Grades 9-12. (6)

Producers or distributors: (1) AIMS Instructional Media Services, P.O. Box 1010, Hollywood, CA 90028. (2) BFA Educational Media, 2211 Michigan Ave., Santa Monica, CA 90404. (3) Churchill Films, 662 N. Robertson Blvd., Los Angeles, CA 90069. (4) Counselor Films, 2100 Locust St., Philadelphia, PA 19103. (5) EBEC, 425 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, IL 60611. (6) Motorola Teleprogram Center, 4825 N. Scott St., Schiller Park, IL 60176. (7) UEVA, 100 Universal City Plaza, Universal City, CA 91608. (8) Warren Schloat Productions, Inc., 150 White Plains Rd., Tarrytown, NY 10591.

NEW NEA MATERIALS

Please use stock numbers (shown in parentheses) and enclose payment for orders under $6. Mail to: NEA Order Dept., The Academic Bldg., Saw Mill Rd., West Haven, CT 06516.

Heritage and Horizon: Teaching Ideas for the Bicentennial. A full color and sound (cassette tape) filmstrip created for the express purpose of helping teachers select ideas for classroom use during the bicentennial year. The filmstrip presents a myriad of ideas—many requiring a minimum of resource materials, a few with more complex needs. Teachers will find these ideas cross all grade levels and disciplines. The viewing time is approximately 10 minutes, with 80 frames. A helpful *Guide and Script* accompanies each filmstrip.

The visual presentation is made even more useful for teachers by *Bicentennial Unit Plans*. This printed booklet contains a group of study plans with objectives, procedures, and resources for 10 topics. A subcommittee of the NEA Bicentennial Committee wrote the Plans.

The complete kit (filmstrip, cassette, Guide, and Unit Plans) is priced at $16. (1956-3-OF)

Environmental Education Teaching Resources: Projects for Environmental Problem-Solving. Outlines an approach and methodology for using student projects as a way to teach students community problem-solving skills. Emphasizes the collection and use of data as a necessary precondition for decision making. 24 pp. $1. (1364-6-OF)

Reading: Instructional Approaches. What Research Says to the Teacher Series. Examines debate between supporters of the decoding (structure) and the comprehension (content) approaches to reading and discusses eclectic instruction procedures. Outlines some of the newer approaches to effective reading instruction. 32 pp. 75¢ (1037-X-OF)

Visual Literacy. Joan M. Platt. What Research Says to the Teacher Series. Defines terms, surveys the history of visual communication, and examines the process of "reading" pictures, symbols, and other graphic representations. 32 pp. 75¢. (1032-9-OF)

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Title IX: Further Regulations Barring Sex Bias

Regulations to implement Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 barring sex bias in education went into effect on July 21, 1975. These provisions, which affect some 16,000 public school systems and 2,700 postsecondary institutions, delineate how institutions may provide equal educational and employment opportunities for both sexes.

The provision requiring institutional self-review is the one that has greatest potential for changing patterns of job opportunity, admissions to vocational and professional fields, and treatment of women at all levels of education. By July 21, 1976, institutions must identify existing policies and practices that are improper and illegal and take whatever steps are necessary to correct them. Institutions will be required to keep records of modifications made and remedial actions taken for three years after completion of their self-evaluation. By indicating areas of overt and covert sex bias, teacher and faculty associations can work with community, parent, and women's groups in helping institutions comply with the self-review mandates of Title IX. It is significant that this provision makes Title IX the first federal law requiring both positive affirmative action to prevent sex bias and remedial action to overcome the effects of bias.

Institutions must designate an employee to coordinate compliance actions and to investigate complaints. Similarly, they must adopt and issue grievance procedures to resolve such complaints. Internal grievance procedures need not be exhausted prior to filing formal complaints with the Office for Civil Rights, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Federal court action may also be instituted. Complaints and court action may result in loss of federal funds.

Admissions provisions cover all vocational, graduate, professional, and public coeducational undergraduate institutions. Not covered are private undergraduate institutions, traditionally single-sex public undergraduate institutions, and military and certain religious institutions.

Among prohibited admissions practices are discriminatory student recruitment; administering any test or using any criterion for admission that adversely affects one sex unless it is a valid predicter of academic success; differential treatment of persons on the basis of sex based on parental, family, or marital status; setting quotas on the number of men or women to be admitted; and requiring different standards, such as grade point averages.

Student treatment provisions apply to all federally assisted institutions from preschools to universities, as well as to other agencies receiving federal aid for educational activities. Exempted from coverage are single-sex organizations, such as social fraternities and sororities at the postsecondary level, Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, and other voluntary youth service groups.

Title IX will ensure for boys and girls access to all courses and extracurricular activities, including athletics; eligibility for financial aid; and use of comparable facilities, such as campus housing.

Single-sex classes at all levels are forbidden, except for separate but comparable sessions for elementary and secondary school students during times when human sexuality is taught and during competition in physical education activities involving bodily contact, such as football, wrestling, and boxing. Elementary schools must comply with the physical education mandate by July 21, 1976, and secondary and postsecondary schools by July 21, 1978.

Men and women are entitled to equal opportunity in the area of athletics; however, competitive and contact sports may be provided through sex-segregated teams, and unequal aggregate expenditures are permitted. Women's teams must receive the funds necessary for equity in such areas as equipment, facilities, training, travel, and other services.

Counselors are barred from steering students of one sex into specific classes or courses as well as using separate testing or other materials for males and females. Similarly, job placement must be done without sex bias.

In general, the *employment provisions* of Title IX follow job-bias laws covering employees of educational institutions (Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, as amended in 1972) and rules promulgated by the U.S. Department of Labor's Office of Federal Contract Compliance to enforce Executive Order 11246, as amended.

The regulation prohibits discrimination in advertising and recruitment, hiring, compensation, employment criteria, promotion, tenure, training, leave, and fringe benefits. Regarding pension benefits, Title IX permits either equal periodic benefits for male and female employees or equal contributions for both sexes. Several federal agencies are developing a definitive policy on this issue.

Institutions cannot discriminate on the basis of pregnancy, and temporary disabilities resulting from pregnancy and childbirth must be treated as any other temporary disability for job-related purposes. Also prohibited are preemployment inquiries as to an applicant's marital status.

The employment section will bring about changes in patterns of employment and promotion of females in elementary and secondary school administration and in granting of tenure and promotions to women faculty in higher education.

—**Betty E. Sinowitz,** *DuShane Emergency Fund, NEA Teacher Rights.*

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